The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 28, 1887.

The Week.

THE Civil-Service Reform Association of Baltimore deserves thanks for its decision to make a formal presentation to the President of the facts regarding the shameless disobedience, both of the Civil-Service Law and of the Executive order against interference by office-holders in politics, committed by Eugene Higgins, Appointment Clerk of the Treasury Department; Morris A. Thomas, Indian Agent; Naval Officer Rasin, and sundry other Federal office-holders at the Democratic primaries in Baltimore last week. There appears to be no dispute that these men neglected the work which they are paid by the taxpayers for doing, and devoted themselves to superintending the operations of the heelers employed by the Gorman ring to capture the primaries by fraud, intimidation, and every other disreputable device known to politics. As we understand it, no attempt is made to deny that Higgins & Co. did what is here charged against them; indeed, Higgins is quoted as openly boasting of his achievements after he had returned to Washington. The temperance lecturer likes to have his "horrible example" to show the terrible consequences of the vice which he condemns. A civil-service-reform President in like manner may have thought that a display of the spoils system in its most odious form in some conspicuous place like Baltimore might, by contrast with the application of the merit system elsewhere, form the most effective object-lesson which could be set before the country. But we must submit that by this time the lesson has been taught, to everybody capable of learning it, that the spoils system, as permitted in Maryland, does not pay as a political investment. Every sensible politician sees that the Administration is the weaker, and the chances of the Democratic party in the next campaign the poorer, for the favor shown to Gorman in Maryland. There is no need of further instruction. Besides, even the "horrible example" cannot be permitted to break the law in order to show that it is better policy for other people to obey it.

The story of the appointment of Harvey, the Treasury clerk who has just been convicted of forgery and sentenced to twelve years' imprisonment, is a most extraordinary one. It appears that his business character was very bad before he applied for the place, being a notorious "bilk" at his place of residence, and that it was because no one would trust him that he sought it. Nevertheless, a large number of respectable men—lawyers, judges, merchants, and politicians, beginning with Mr. Samuel J. Randall—warmly recommended him, showing that they either did not know anything about him, or did not think a bad character a disqualification for a Government office. He was appointed, too, in spite of the protests of Messrs. Curtin and Storm, both Democratic Congressmen, and one of them from Harvey's district. After his appointment, formal charges of swindling and general bad reputation were made against him by Mr. E. G. Scott of Wilkesbarre, and referred to the Internal Revenue Collector, Mr. Staples, at that place, for examination. He let Harvey know what was going on, and Harvey told him it was all right, that the charges were referred to him because Mr. Manning wanted to have him "vindicated." Staples told this in a letter of extreme naïveté to the Treasury Department, and asked if it was true, and, receiving no answer, actually investigated on the assumption that it was true! He accordingly wrote a report which is one of the curiosities of official literature, showing that, although Harvey's reputation was bad, it was not "irretrievably bad," and that, although he had been a Republican, he had not been a "bitter Republican," and that, although he had swindled now and then, he had always swindled under extenuating circumstances, and that he would doubtless avail himself of the opportunities of self-reformation offered by the Treasury. Accordingly, although Scott renewed his charges, Harvey kept his place, did not reform, and finally forged.

Capt. "Mike" Cregan's speech to his supporters on Friday night is one of the most instructive political documents we have had for a long time. It bears about the same relation to most of the political oratory of the day that a well-cooked tenderloin steak bears to water gruel. It was full of nutriment for students of politics, and especially for those who have difficulty in understanding Republican politics in New York and do not care to go to the primaries in order to learn. Few people, for instance, know what the duties and powers of a Boy are in the Republican Machine. Well, Mike explained this in a sort of object-lesson by calling his meeting. Thousands of intelligent men in this city doubtless suppose that a Republican Boy derives his powers from the Republican County Committee, and therefore expected that Mike, when formally dis-boyed by the Committee—that is, expelled from it and from his district leadership—would fade into obscurity and nothingness. This is of course a most natural supposition. It is what one would find in all the political dictionaries and manuals under the head of "Boy" or "Local Politics." It is the view doubtless taught in the colleges in lectures on the Rice case. But yet it is fundamentally wrong, showing that, as Prof. Huxley says, nothing scientific can be learned out of books. You must actually see, or even, if possible, handle, the thing you seek to know about. To know the precise nature of a Boy's functions and powers, you must see him doing Boy's work, and hear him explaining it as he goes along. This opportunity, which does not present itself once in ten years, Mike offered to students on Friday. The tapping of two kegs of beer for the meeting at Mike's expense after he had concluded, is something we do not approve of and will not seek to palliate. But Mike's course in uncovering the springs of power and taking huge draughts therefrom in the presence of the public, must commend itself to every lover of courage and fair play. The Republican Committee has undoubtedly attempted, in dis-boying him, to inflict a grievous wrong on the people in Mike's district, and his exposure of the real nature and probable consequences of the attempt do him great credit, and will doubtless bear fruit.

There are signs that some of the Grand Army men recognize the danger threatened to their organization by the antics of such men as Fairchild and Tuttle. Harrow Post of Mount Vernon, Ind., held a meeting on Saturday night, and unanimously adopted resolutions which might well serve as a model for other posts. After a preamble, reciting that the President had accepted an invitation to be present at the National Encampment in St. Louis, and had been induced to withdraw his acceptance "by reason of disloyal and threatening language by certain individuals, who claim that there is not enough room in the city of St. Louis for the President and the G. A. R. to be there at the same time," it was resolved that "it is the opinion of the members of this post that all individuals whose language and acts contributed to this result, if members of the Grand Army of the Republic, are guilty of violating sections 4 and 5 of Article 6 of the rules and regulations of the order, which read as follows: 'Section 4, conduct unbecoming a soldier and a gentleman in his relation to the Grand Army of the Republic; section 5, conduct prejudicial to good order and discipline'; and they are further of the opinion that all said individuals whose acts caused or induced the Chief Executive of the nation to withdraw his acceptance of the invitation to be present at the said meeting of the National Encampment, are guilty of disloyalty, and are as reprehensible as were those who endeavored to prevent President-elect Lincoln from passing through Baltimore on his way to Washington for inauguration in 1861, and deserve like condemnation."

The *Evening Star* of Washington says that the papers of applicants for positions on the police force of that city indicate that most of them are persons of very limited education. The reason is interesting. A law was passed some twenty years ago restricting appointments to such places to those who had served in the army and navy of the United States and received an honorable discharge, the intent of which was to benefit the veterans of the war. This intent is now, and for some time has been, thwarted by a requirement that an appointee must be between twenty-two and thirty-eight years of age. The members of the Grand Army of the Republic have endeavored to remove or extend this age limitation, in order that the original intent might be carried out; but fortunately they have not succeeded in doing so. It is plain that a design of this kind must sooner or later give way to weightier considerations. It may

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be conceded that the act of Congress was a proper one at the time, but it cannot be questioned that the protection of life and property at the capital of the nation demanded its virtual nullification just as soon as the survivors of the war had passed the vigor of their early manhood; and it is to be regretted that the act was not then repealed. The police force is now, by reason of the existence of this law, recruited from the army and navy, which consists, "as a rule, of those who are unable, for lack of training, to obtain mechanical or professional employment," and yet, by reason of the existencee of an age qualification, those for whom the law was enacted are not benefited. The consequence is, that it becomes more difficult each year to secure competent men for the positions, because more intelligence and skill are required as the city of Washington increases in size and importance, and the number of men of character and attainments who enlist in this time of peace in our army or navy, receive an honorable discharge, and take up their residence in the District of Columbia, grows smaller and smaller.

The movement among the drafted men who did not go to the war, but paid their own money for substitutes, for reimbursement at the public expense, ought to be hailed with joy by all persons who are alarmed about the Treasury surplus. But it appears to us that the movers are working on the wrong plan. They ought to present their claim to Congress, not to the Legislature or the County Supervisors. The local communities are almost certain to reject the claim, but if it were offered as an amendment to a pension bill, or a bill for equalizing currency with gold, or some other measure for reducing the surplus, it would have a very fair prospect of success. It is a very commendable feature of the plan that the substitute-buyers demand interest from the date of payment, because that will reduce the surplus more effectually than mere repayment of the principal. The only thing wanting to make the measure popular is an amendment paying the same amount to the drafted men who went in person as to those who went by proxy. Why not?

A new argument against reducing the tariff in order to reduce the Treasury surplus is having a fine run in the protectionist newspapers. It is that a reduction of duties commonly leads to increased importations and thus to additional revenue. How absurd, then, to expect to reduce the surplus in that way! Our esteemed contemporary the *Tribune* closed one of its solemn articles on the shortcomings of the Administration the other day with this admonition. We venture to suggest that if such an article as wool should be relieved of tax altogether, the increased importations would not add anything to the receipts of the Government. It is quite certain that the Treasury surplus is not derived from the free list. Therefore we may avoid the disaster so much apprehended by the *Tribune* and its imitators by simply enlarging the free list. There never was so grand an opportunity to emancipate industry since the United States became an independent nation as the present. By removing the taxes from lumber, ores, salt, wool, and other raw materials and chemicals, the Treasury surplus would be sensibly cut down, and the shackles of many industries removed. But this is what Mr. Randall calls "cutting to the quick and drawing blood." Some man has an iron mine, or a copper mine, or a timber forest, or some other gratuity of nature, in consideration of which the Government has granted him a license to charge 30 or 50 per cent. more than his products are worth in a free market—that is, to "draw blood" from everybody who is obliged to buy his goods. But when it is proposed to curtail in some small degree the amount of nourishment that he may draw from the veins of his neighbors and customers, his screams are so terrible that his victims really believe that some desperate injustice is about to be done to him, whereas the only thing proposed is to restore to other people the right to be free from blood-suckers.

A handy illustration of the distressful effects of tariff meddling reaches us in the current number of the *Manufacturers' Record*, in which the Hon. William D. Kelley tells the people of the South how they have been afflicted by the closing of a mill for the manufacture of iron ties for baling cotton, situated at Helena, Ala., and owned by Rufus W. Cobb. In 1883 Congress, at the instance of Southern members, made some reduction in the duty on cotton ties, and this mill was closed. Cotton ties were more abundant and decidedly cheaper afterwards than before. They were paid for by the products of American industry, the Britisher not having the grace as yet to give them to us for nothing. The only difference was that the planter received say ten ties in exchange for a given amount of cotton where he got only nine before, and that Cobb did not manufacture them. Now, according to Kelley, it is a great calamity that the State of Alabama is not using up her coal and iron and getting nine cotton ties with a given amount of labor, when she can get ten just as easily, and save her coal and iron for some more profitable use. But a more disastrous chance was the lowering of the duty on iron-wire rods by the tariff of 1883, resulting in the importation of 164,962 tons last year for wire fencing. This, Mr. Kelley contends, was a great damage to the South, where barb-wire fences are in extensive use, for, although there is no lack of wire at lower prices than before, "the privilege of supplying the South with these rods and with cotton ties would have been a boon to the people of the whole section." The Southerners considered the boon to consist in *having* the fences and the ties, while Mr. Kelley thinks that it consists in *making* them. Both parties might be satisfied by passing a law to pay the Cobbs and the Kelleys a fair price out of the public treasury for making wire rods and ties, and leaving other people free to buy those articles where they can get the most for their money. In this way we should be burning our coal and melting our iron and sweating over our furnaces with the desired ardor, and at the same time not preventing any farmer or planter from making the best bargain that he can for himself. Another advantage of this plan would be that we should know just how much it costs us in the way of bonus to consume prematurely and unnecessarily certain gifts of nature that are not unlimited in amount and that can never be replaced. Under the protective system we are quite in the dark as to the amount of the bonus. As regards the duty on wire rods, we believe that the mishap which Judge Kelley deplores came about through an untimely quarrel and grab game among the Northern manufacturers themselves, and that the Southern Congressmen had little or nothing to do with it.

The Ohio Democratic platform bears detailed examination better than such timber usually does. Aside from the "hearty and unqualified endorsement" of President Cleveland's Administration, and the demand for tariff reduction in preference to the abolition of the whiskey tax, two planks merit especial praise. After the usual amount of the regulation "flapdoodle" about labor and capital, comes this plain and strong declaration: "We demand speedy punishment of all persons inciting riot and revolution against republican institutions." Equally plain, strong, and commendable is this deliverance: "We demand the fullest safeguards for the ballot-box, the punishment of all who seek to corrupt it, and the enactment of a law making it a felony for corporations, capitalists, and employers to intimidate or attempt to control the political action of their employees."

The agitation of coöperative enterprises among the Knights of Labor is opening their eyes to the great truth that "business is business." Mr. Powderly has just issued a pronunciamiento on the subject, in which he explains that "to supersede the wage system by the introduction of the coöperative industrial system always has been the goal of the efforts of our order," justifies the plan of requiring a compulsory assessment of 24 cents a year upon every member to secure money for operations in this line, and adds: "This system of managing the funds cannot be called democratic, it is true, but democracy is out of place in business, which is simply a matter of dollars for those interested. There is no room in cooperative management for sentiment, or for the rule of the majority, which has little feeling of responsibility, especially when the individuals have only a small financial interest at stake." If it were a "capitalist" who talked in this strain, Mr. Powderly would be filled with contempt for his heartlessness; but it is what the average labor reformer is fond of calling "God's truth," and it may do some good to have it preached from such a source.

The difficulties of organizing a national labor party in this country multiply, as the most prominent leaders array themselves in opposition to each other on vital questions. There is the burning issue of the tariff, on which a labor party must take a pronounced stand. Shall it follow Henry George and demand free trade, or adopt Powderly's belief in protection? Then again as to immigration: Shall it endorse Powderly's notion of placing restrictions upon the coming of the "pauper

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laborers" of Europe in order to keep up wages in this country, or hold with George, in his Brooklyn speech on Sunday evening, that "this country could support in comfort the whole population of Europe"? These are some of the questions which will puzzle the delegates who try next year to construct a platform and select a candidate to represent the real views of "Labor."

The arrivals of immigrants at the half-dozen chief ports of the country, which always receive about 98 per cent. of the whole number, foot up 483,116 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1887, against only 328,895 for the fiscal year ending with June, 1886. The most striking feature of the table is the great increase in the number from Italy (47,524 against 21,503), and from Russia, Finland, and Poland combined (36,887 against 21,706). Germany continues largely to surpass Ireland in the size of its contribution, sending 106,559 people to the United States last year, against only 68,130 from Ireland.

Dr. McGlynn has at last produced his plan for abolishing poverty, in answer to the question, "How does the Anti-Poverty Society propose to abolish poverty?" Here it is as given by him at a meeting in Irving Hall on Thursday night:

"How are we going to do it? None so blind as those who will not see. We are going to do it by talking to the voters, by persuading the voters to accept our ideas, by electing an Anti-Poverty majority to the Legislature and to Congress. In every future election we are to nominate candidates of our own, pledged to carry out our ideas, and we are to keep on reiterating our platform of principles."

The only criticism we should make on this as a plan is, that it has been, we fear, already fully tried, and has produced no effect on poverty in general. Unless the majority in the Legislature and in Congress is greatly belied, it is and has been composed for many years of anti-poverty men of the strictest views. They are all, or nearly all, uncompromising foes of Poverty in all its forms. We doubt if there is among them a single doughface, or man who would, if he could, pander to Poverty, or make terms with it of any sort. What will prevent their trying the McGlynn land scheme is not any partiality for Poverty, but fear that it may not succeed, or that it may distract too much attention from their own poverty to poverty in general, because we are bound to admit that their own poverty is their first concern. It is against it that they 'put in their best licks," as the poet says.

The most striking feature of the continued discussion of the question of Federal aid to Southern schools, which is provoked by Senator Blair's efforts to keep the scheme alive, is the development of opposition on the part of teachers in institutions for colored pupils in the South. A few weeks ago Gen. Armstrong, in his annual report as the principal of Hampton (Va.) Institute, admitted that he had changed his opinion on this subject and no longer favored the scheme of Federal aid, in view of the evidence that the South does not now need it. The July number of the *Bibliotheca Sacra* contains an article on the subject of Southern illiteracy by the Rev. W. E. C. Wright, Professor in Berea (Ky.) College—an institution which has done a great work in the education of the negroes—which opposes the project, and uses an argument often urged by us. "The most serious objection to this," says Prof. Wright, "is the fear that it would diminish, rather than increase, local exertions for the support of schools. Already the agitation of the measure is occasionally used as a reason for not increasing State funds. Southern candidates for Congress have been heard saying to their constituents, 'Your children have got to be educated. Would you rather pay for it yourselves, or have the nation pay for it?'" The intelligent opposition to the Blair bill of such men as Gen. Armstrong and Prof. Wright far outweighs the hasty endorsement of the project upon a partial presentation of the case by bodies like the recent National Educational Convention.

The temperance cause has suffered a terrible blow. Jeff Davis has come out, openly and unblushingly, in favor of it. The dastardly act was committed on Sunday, and is thus described in a special despatch from New Orleans to the *World*: "Jefferson Davis was at the Seashore Camp Ground, on the Gulf Coast, to-day, where Southern Methodists have had a religious encampment for the past ten days. Beauvoir, his home, is only a few miles distant. Each year he receives an invitation to attend, with his family. To-day, after Mrs. Sarah F. Chapin had made a rousing temperance speech, Mr. Davis approached her and said: 'I endorse every word you have uttered, and am heartily in sympathy with your great cause.' He left for home wearing the silver badge of the W. C. T. U., which Mrs. Chapin had pinned on his breast. His reception, as usual, was flattering and enthusiastic." When "traitors" and "unhung rebels" favor any cause, "loyal" people know that duty requires them to oppose it, and free rum must now command the support of all who are opposed to the return of the rebel flags and the dominance in this country of traitorous ideas. "The Republican saloonkeepers" of New York may rest assured, after this shameless performance on the part of the "arch-traitor," that they will get "the protection to which they are entitled."

The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad does not find it so easy to carry out its programme of entering New York by way of Staten Island. The principal feature of this project is a bridge across Arthur Kill from New Jersey, over which trains would pass direct to wharves on Staten Island, making the eastern terminus of what is to be one of the great trunk lines, on the water front of the State of New York instead of in New Jersey. Under such circumstances the building of the proposed bridge becomes of considerable importance to the latter State, and her legal authorities have determined that no railroad shall escape out of the State with its terminus through any lack of efforts on their part to prevent it. The New York and Baltimore Railroad Company was organized to build its road from Bound Brook to Staten Island, and an act of Congress was passed authorizing that road to construct a bridge across Arthur Kill from the State of New Jersey to the State of New York; but when work was actually begun, the Attorney-General for the State of New Jersey applied to the Court of Chancery of that State for an injunction, which was promptly granted. From this court the controversy has been removed to the United States Court. The question is, whether or not, in submitting to the General Government the right to regulate commerce, the States included the arbitrary right to establish means of carrying on commerce, or only surrendered the right to regulate the general commercial use of the means provided by nature, such as navigable waters, and those avenues of trade which, through the construction of roads and bridges, from time to time may be established by authority of the States. This, as stated by Mr. Justice Bradley, is a question of importance. It has not yet been definitely settled, and the decision will be awaited with considerable interest, both in its general bearing and in its application to the particular case of the Arthur Kill bridge.

The triumph just obtained by the Liberal party in Hungary, in the elections to the first quinquennial Parliament, is even greater than the warmest friends of the Tisza Cabinet, which that party has so long victoriously supported, could fairly have anticipated. With the exception of the extreme Left, or Independence party, which gained two seats, all fractions of the Opposition have been losers in the electoral contest, the Government candidates being successful in 259 out of 411 Hungarian districts, and thus achieving an almost two-thirds majority outside of the two-score representatives from Croatia, who are elected by the diet of that dependency of the crown of St. Stephen. In the simultaneous elections to that diet the success of the Government has even been more signal. In Hungary proper, including the Transylvanian districts, the anti-Magyar Nationalists, with the exception of the Transylvanian Saxons, everywhere succumbed or yielded to the pressure of the Government machine, sharpened according to localities and circumstances. The Anti-Semites lost a third of their number, including the notoriously corrupt and judicially branded Verhoday, while the father of their dwindling phalanx, the more honestly fanatical Istóczy, has been reëlected by a trifling majority. The influence of the Jews seems to have been felt everywhere in favor of their steadfast, though not over-zealous, protector, Tisza—especially in the non-Magyar portions of the kingdom, in which the national radicalism of the Independence party could play no part, and the uneducated peasantry was worked upon by officials, nobles, and the mercantile class. Tisza's strongest opponents were his own fellow-Calvinists of the Magyar race, among whom the recollections and political maxims of the Kossuth period, 1848-9, have survived with unabated vigor. What chiefly militated in his favor, outside of the not over-scrupulously handled administrative machine, was the late success of the Austro-Hungarian policy, in which he coöperated with Kálnoky, in the imbroglio in the Balkan Peninsula, where the diplomacy of Russia, the dreaded foe of Hungary, was so decisively nonplussed.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[Wednesday, July 20, to Tuesday, July 26, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

The Invitation Committee from St. Louis called on President Cleveland on Monday, and he promised to visit their city, probably in October. The movement to induce the President to visit Chicago this fall has proceeded so far that the Mayor has almost completed the committee of 200 provided for in the resolutions passed by the Council. Other Western cities are taking similar steps.

Secretary Whitney has appointed Capt. F. M. Ramsey, of the New York Navy-yard, chief of a Board who are directed to go on board of the new cruiser, the *Atlanta*, at Newport, and proceed to sea with her, for the purpose of putting her under a war test. At a trial of her big guns last week, the recoil tore up the deck and otherwise injured the vessel.

The gross increase of the receipts of thirteen of the largest post offices in this country for the last quarter over the same quarter of last year was $351,138. At this rate the gross receipts of the entire service for the last quarter of the fiscal year just closed will be about $12,000,000.

The attention of the Treasury authorities has been called to a cut of the new bullion certificate to be issued by the Western National Bank of this city, of which ex-Secretary Manning is President, and the inquiry has been made whether this certificate would share the fate of similar certificates if it should be used as the representative of money. One of the Treasury officials is quoted as saying, "I do not see how that certificate can be issued. It is the representative of money, that is clear. It may be called a warehouse certificate, but it nevertheless is undoubtedly to be used as a form of money certificate, and to pass current as such. It seems to me that it comes within the prohibition of the law."

Mr. Will A. Freret, the new Supervising Architect of the Treasury, was born in New Orleans in 1833. He studied his profession under John Community, the well known civil engineer of the South, who had been educated in the Polytechnic School in Paris. Mr. Freret's first appointment was by Maj. Beauregard to rebuild the State University at Pineville. He served on the staff of Gen. Kirby Smith in the Kentucky campaign, and remained with him as Major of Engineers until the end of the war. He has devoted himself entirely to his profession since 1872.

Judge Wallace, in the United States Circuit Court in this city, has granted a permanent injunction to the American Bell Telephone Company against the Globe Telephone Company, to restrain the latter from infringing on the patent granted to Alexander Graham Bell on March 7, 1876. The Globe Company averred that they owned the patents of an Italian who claims that in 1849 or 1850, while at work in a machine shop at Havana, he discovered the manner of transmitting the tones of the voice by electricity. He came to this country and took up his residence at Staten Island, and for twenty-four years he says he has had his telephone in use in his house.

The New York Republican State Committee will meet at Saratoga on August 2 to call the State Convention.

The Ohio Democratic Convention last Wednesday nominated Thomas E. Powell, a prominent lawyer, for Governor, and a full ticket. The platform begins with the declaration that "The Democratic party of Ohio, in Convention assembled, proclaims its hearty and unqualified endorsement of the honest, patriotic, and economical Administration of President Cleveland." This was received with the greatest enthusiasm. On the tariff question it says: "We demand such judicious reduction of the present burdensome tariff as shall result in producing a revenue sufficient only to meet the expenses of an economical administration of the Government, the payment of liberal pensions to Union soldiers and sailors, and the payment of the interest and principal of the public debt." The platform demands "that all lands of the Government be held for actual settlers who are citizens of the United States, and for those who declare their intention to become such"; expresses sympathy with Ireland; favors "such restraints of the centralization and encroachment of corporate power as will bring the best possible protection to honest labor, and at the same time conserve the interests of honestly employed capital"; declares opposition to the importation of contract labor; demands "speedy punishment of all persons inciting riot and revolution against republican institutions," and also "the fullest safeguards for the ballot-box, the punishment of all who seek to corrupt it, and the enactment of a law making it a felony for corporations, capitalists, and employers to intimidate or attempt to control the political action of their employees"; and declares in favor of a proper regulation of the liquor traffic.

John L. Barbour, the well-known Democratic leader of Virginia, has declared that "the South stands at the President's back, to renominate him for another four years."

The Georgia House has passed a bill placing a tax of $10,000 upon every dealer in domestic wines and other intoxicants who deals therein to the exclusion of foreign wines, alcoholic and malt liquors. The necessity for the bill arose from the fact that the law under which 118 of the 137 counties of Georgia have become "dry" permits the sale of domestic wine. Under this law the State has been filled with wine-rooms which sold the vilest compounds of wine and whiskey.

The great coke strike in Pennsylvania ended last week in the surrender of the strikers. When the strike began, four-fifths of the 11,000 men in the coke region had money of their own, but very few of them have enough money now to take them out of the district, if they wanted to leave. Their loss of wages is placed at $996,300.

The New York Board of Arbitration has been trying to settle the strike of the operatives of the Harmony Mills at Cohoes, but the mill officers refused to appear before the Board, one of them saying: "We have nothing to arbitrate. The help that are working for us are satisfied and have no grievances. We have nothing to do with people who, becoming dissatisfied, quit the mill and refused to return."

In the Convention of District Assembly No. 30, Knights of Labor, at Fall River last week, a resolution was adopted approving of the administration of General Master Workman Powderly, and instructing the delegates from District No. 30 to be sent to the Minneapolis Convention to vote for his reëlection. Gambrinus Assembly, Knights of Labor, of Milwaukee, 1,000 strong, has withdrawn from the order because of Mr. Powderly's sentiments on the temperance question. It is probable that the assembly composed of tight-barrel coopers will also withdraw for the same reason.

Mr. Robert Garrett printed a letter last week declaring that all the negotiations known as "the Baltimore and Ohio deal" are at an end. Henry S. Ives and George H. Stayner thereupon began two actions against President Garrett. It is understood that the object of one action will be to compel him to carry out the contract, which Messrs. Ives and Stayner claim that he made with them, by which he was to deliver to them a controlling interest in the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, the Telegraph and the Express Companies, and the other action will be a suit for pecuniary damages alleged to be entailed upon them by Mr. Garrett's allegation that negotiations between him and them are off.

The Short Line Railroad through Maine is under way, and its construction is regarded by the Canadian press as one of the most important events in the history of the Canadian provinces. The road links the Grand Trunk with the Boston and Maine, extending the Sherbrooke branch to Lake Megantic, on the Maine border, and thence to Mattawamkeag, on the Boston and Maine Railroad line.

The San Francisco Chamber of Commerce has passed a resolution asking Congress "to offer such inducements that capital may be attracted to" the work of laying a cable to the Sandwich Islands.

Gen. Paine's new steel yacht *Volunteer*, which will probably race with the English yacht *Thistle*, on her trial trip from Boston last Thursday showed speeding qualities that were highly satisfactory.

In January last the German ship *Elizabeth* went ashore off the Virginia coast and was wrecked. The life-saving crew at Dan Neck Mills Station, Virginia, did their best to rescue the crew, but were only partly successful, while all the life-saving crew but two lost their lives, and their families were left destitute. The Treasury Department has received through the State Department a letter from the German Minister enclosing a check for $1,000 and a box containing two gold watches, with the statement that the Emperor of Germany appreciates the efforts of the American Life-Saving Service to rescue the German sailors, and, in token of that appreciation, sends $200 to the family of each of the five men who lost their lives, and a gold watch to each of the two survivors.

During a "Wild West" performance in a circus at Clinton, Ia., on Tuesday night of last week, one of the cowboys, in some unexplained way, used a revolver in the sham fight which was loaded with balls. Three persons in the audience were shot, and one is likely to die.

While a gang of Italian laborers were at work ballasting the tracks of the Erie Railroad Company near Hobokus, N. J., last Thursday, they stepped on the west track to avoid one train and were run into by an express train running the other way. Eleven of them were killed outright and five others were injured.

Miss Dorothea Lynde Dix, the well-known philanthropist, died last week at Trenton, N. J., aged eighty-two years. She was born in Worcester, Mass. Becoming an orphan in early life, the necessity for making her own living caused her to devote herself to teaching. She started a girls' school in Boston, which was very successful. In 1830 she inherited a small fortune, and in 1834 she gave up her school, and thenceforth she devoted her life to philanthropic work, particularly the care and treatment of the insane paupers and criminals. A long-cherished plan of hers for the permanent relief of the pauper insane was to obtain a Federal grant of 10,000,000 acres of land to the several States. The plan, however, was doomed to failure. She petitioned Congress for the grant in 1848 and again in 1850, and, after most arduous efforts on her part, Congress, in 1854, passed a bill granting 10,000,000 acres of land for that purpose. It was vetoed, however, by President Pierce. When the war broke out, Miss Dix was among the first to offer her services as a nurse. She arrived in Washington in April, 1861, and her first work as a nurse was done in ministering to the soldiers wounded by the mob in Baltimore. Later, Secretary Cameron appointed her Superintendent of Female Nurses, with entire control of their appointment and assignments to duty, and she was continued in that position by Secretary Stanton, holding it until some months after the close of the war.

Jennie Collins, the well-known founder of "Boffin's Bower" in Boston, died last Thursday. She first came before the public in the capacity of a lecturer. Soon after the war she took upon herself the duty of educating soldiers' boys. She was the founder of "Boffin's Bower," which was instituted soon after the great fire of 1872 in Boston, when so many working girls were thrown out of employ. Its principal object was to aid the girls of the city who have to work for a living.

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John Taylor, President of the Mormon Church, died on Monday night, aged seventy-eight years. The place of his death is not known, he having been a fugitive from justice since March, 1885.

FOREIGN.

The passage of the Coercion Bill has been followed by the immediate proclaiming of every county in Ireland. In the House of Commons on Monday evening Mr. Morley asked what had happened to explain this, since the Government had assured the House that the law was as well obeyed in some parts of Ireland as in any part of Great Britain. Mr. Balfour replied that he had no reason to change his opinion on that point. What the Government had done was not to apply the whole Crimes Act to Ireland generally, but only the sub-sections dealing with rioting, unlawful assemblies, and obstruction of police. In every case in which a county had been specially proclaimed, the proclamation had been issued because the Government believed in the actual existence of crime or intimidation.

Mr. Balfour has made an important explanation in the Commons of the changes the Government proposes to make in its Irish Land Bill. They are thus summarized: (1.) The right to proceed by writ of *fieri facias*, which has been called "the back door to evictions," is made subject to the discretion of the County Court Judge. (2.) With regard to the revision of judicial rents, the Land Court is instructed to devise a scale of revision based solely upon prices, which will vary according to the districts to which it is applied—that is, the Land Commission will fix the averages and arrange the districts according to agriculture and soil; the rent is to be fixed for three years. (3.) The Government is prepared to drop the bankruptcy clauses with reluctance. (4.) Leaseholders are excluded from the remedial legislation.

The conciliatory course of the Conservative leaders towards the Liberal Unionists has called forth emphatic protests from the Tory ranks. Mr. Agar Ellis, a typical Irish landlord, has said: "These amendments to the Land Act mean no more nor less than the cessation of rent in Ireland for three years. In a very short time the whole country will be in a state of chaos. There can be no business transactions where the most solemn undertakings are set at naught when the exigencies of place and party step in. I can see no reason why I should move a finger for this Government. They are bent on ruining my country, but so was Gladstone. I think he would do it quicker, and therefore more mercifully." The London *Times* calls on the Government to settle the National League at once by proclamation and have it all out before Parliament rises.

The London *World* announces positively that the Ministry will be reconstructed in November, Hartington becoming Prime Minister and Salisbury retaining the Foreign Office; and that Sir Henry James and several other prominent Unionists will join the new Government, and an important office be found for Sir Randolph Churchill—Mr. Chamberlain to be left out in the cold. The *Freeman's Journal* says the Government cannot hold together without Hartington.

A dinner was given in London last Wednesday night to Mr. Parnell and his colleagues by the advanced Liberal party. Mr. Parnell's speech was chiefly remarkable for his very emphatic repudiation of all methods of violence in the Irish movement. He dwelt upon the fact that crime in Ireland is decreasing, asserted his belief that, whatever wrong might be inflicted on the Irish people, they would be slow to retaliate, and declared that his countrymen would be fools were they to do anything to prejudice the splendid position they had attained by the aid of Mr. Gladstone and the Liberal party. It was noticeable that, in an extremely bitter article in the London *Times* the next morning, all reference to Mr. Parnell's repudiation of crime was carefully suppressed.

Mr. John Morley, in opening the Liberal Club at Hackney on Saturday night, said that the Government had waited half a year in passing a measure that was intended to suppress the National League, but directly they obtained it Lord Salisbury changed his attitude and said he would adopt the League's policy regarding rents in Ireland. Lord Salisbury, Mr. Goschen, and other Conservatives had contended that to interfere with rent contracts would be dishonest. It was useless now to say that they only meant to be dishonest for three years. They were deluding themselves if they thought the proposals dependent upon the passing of the Tory Land Purchase Bill would only be temporary. Were the Government likely to agree among themselves on a Land Purchase Bill when it was introduced, they would be obliged to frame a measure that would satisfy the Tory landlords on one hand and the English electors on the other. In February the Government promised a Land Purchase Bill which would settle the land question in Ireland. It was stated that the bill was nearly prepared. It would have been better to have introduced it instead of wasting time on the Coercion Bill, and then be compelled to deal with a temporary revision of rents.

The Marquis of Salisbury last Friday, replying to a deputation which called to urge the Government to take some action to protect British trade from the effects of foreign competition assisted by bounties, said it was impossible to speak too strongly of the injustice which the foreign bounty systems inflicted on British workmen. A European conference, he said, would soon consider the matter, and in the meantime he could only say that there were two ways for Englishmen to deal with their assailants in this contest. If reasoning failed, Englishmen might return the blow.

The Afghan boundary question has been settled. Russia receives the territory between the Kushk and the Murghab Rivers, accepting in return the English frontier line on the Oxus River, and renouncing her claims to districts to which she would have been entitled according to the terms of the arrangement of 1883. Russia obtains the whole pasture district between the rivers Kushk and Murghab. A despatch from St. Petersburg says it is reported there that the Amir of Afghanistan is discontented with the settlement, considering that too great concessions have been made to Russia.

The *République Française* of Paris, commenting on the Anglo-Turkish Egyptian Convention, pronounces it a masterpiece of duplicity, intended to transfer Egypt entirely to England. The *Journal des Débats* says: "We are as well disposed after the rejection of the convention as we were before to negotiate with England. We are ready to allow largely for the position into which accomplished facts and French mistakes have placed England. We are resolved to offer England complete guarantee that we do not think of taking any position on the Nile that she may vacate, but we are determined to maintain France's incontestable rights."

According to letters received from Bucharest, M. de Coutouly, the French Minister there, in a speech on the 14th inst., said that the French republic was preparing for a sanguinary struggle, which would be the more formidable the longer the outbreak was delayed, and he concluded by offering a toast to the health of the Russian Minister, M. Olossof, whereupon all present shouted, "Success to Russia, the friend of France."

Natives at Bombay report that Russia is secretly negotiating with the Governor of Yarkand, in Chinese Turkestan, for permission to pass troops across the country.

The Bulgarian question is still unsettled. According to a despatch from Pesth, M. Tutcheff, the President of the Sobranye, has publicly declared that Prince Ferdinand has grossly deceived the Bulgarians, and that he has been an instrument in the hands of Russia. It is the general opinion in Vienna that he will decline to occupy the throne. The new ministry, it is reported, will not at present venture to enter Sofia, fearing the opposition of the army. It is also reported that the troops intend to proclaim the independence of Bulgaria and Prince Alexander of Battenberg as King.

The Paris *Figaro* believes that the negotiations between Germany and the Vatican for the Germanization of Alsace-Lorraine have collapsed, the Pope refusing to forbid the use of French in the seminaries of the province.

Much military activity is reported at Metz. The enlarging of forts and evolutions of troops are proceeding constantly. Work is conducted at night by the aid of the electric light. The balloon department is experimenting with a view to trying the destructive effect of dynamite hurled down upon forts from a balloon.

The Frankfort Chamber of Commerce has sent a petition to the Government, asking aid to complete the construction of a canal from Antwerp to the Rhine. The Belgian part of the canal already exists. The Dutch section is half cut, and Germany has concluded a treaty with Holland for its completion.

M. de Lesseps presided at a meeting of the shareholders of the Panama Canal in Paris last Thursday. The annual report showed a decrease in the former confidence that the canal would be opened in 1889, but expressed a hope that a connection between the Atlantic and Pacific would then exist across the Isthmus of Panama, and that the works would be completed soon afterwards.

The Spanish Government has decided to abolish the Cuban export duties on sugar, molasses, and spirits. Gen. Salamanca has been appointed Captain-General of the island.

The members of the Catholic Congress at Lucca are signing a petition asking the Government to devote its attention to the question of a reconciliation of the Quirinal and Vatican. It is stated that the Pope approves the step.

The Pope has decided that there is no ground for Papal interference with the Knights of Labor question.

Reports of the death of Henry M. Stanley in Africa were recived in London last Thursday, but are not confirmed. One report was that he had been shot by the natives, and another that he had been drowned. Direct news has been received from him up to July 3. The latest reports brought from the interior by traders show that Emin Bey was in good health in March, and was projecting an expedition to explore further the Kakibbi River, an immense stream which he discovered in September, rising in the Usongora Mountains and flowing into the southern part of Mwutan Nzige. It is thought that he may meet the Stanley expedition in Usongora. Mwanga still refused to grant him permission to leave the country, but he permitted messengers to obtain supplies for the expedition. Emin Bey had not heard of Stanley's mission.

A report has been received that a tribe friendly to Egypt attacked the Mahdists under Osman Digna, near Kassala, recently, and that heavy fighting ensued, during which 1,000 men were killed.

The Gentlemen of Scotland defeated the Canadian cricketers in England last week by ten wickets.

The rifle contest for the Kolapore Cup took place at Wimbledon, Eng., last week. The English team won the cup, with an aggregate score of 710. The Canadian team were second, with 663.

During last week several extensive forest fires raged at Harbor Grace Junction and other points near St. Johns, N. F. The fire at Harbor Grace Junction swept over a large area of country, destroying valuable timber lands. The buildings known as the headquarters of the Placentia Railway branch were burned, and other valuable property. Nothing was saved except a few of the engineers' instruments.

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THE OHIO DEMOCRATS.

THE Democrats of Ohio are not usually accounted a promising variety of the genus, and they have not seemed to be improving in character since they discarded Mr. Pendleton for the leadership of the almighty dollar represented by the Paynes. The punishment that overtook them two years ago, and again last year, was none too severe for that wretched piece of business, although the heaviest blow fell upon the head of Gov. Hoadly, an able, estimable, and honorable man. The party needed a blighting disaster, and this it received in two successive campaigns where all the advantages of possession were on its own side. The State government passed into the hands of the Republicans in all its branches, and there it is most likely to remain, notwithstanding the very creditable action of the party at its Convention on Thursday.

The essence and vital part of the platform adopted by the Ohio Democrats is the first resolution, which reads as follows:

"The Democratic party of Ohio, in convention assembled, proclaims its hearty and unqualified endorsement of the honest, patriotic, and economical administration of President Cleveland. We demand such judicious reduction of the present burdensome tariff as shall result in producing a revenue sufficient only to meet the expenses of an economical administration of Government, the payment of liberal pensions to Union soldiers and sailors, and the payment of the interest and principal of the public debt; and if necessary, we favor such reduction of internal revenue, except on liquors, as will prevent the accumulation of a surplus in the National Treasury, and we denounce any attempt to abolish the tax on liquors for the purpose of keeping up the present unjust, unequal, and onerous tariff system."

There is no room to doubt that the endorsement of President Cleveland's Administration was as hearty and unqualified in fact as it appears to be on paper. If there was any doubt before that Mr. Cleveland would receive the vote of the State in the next National Democratic Convention, there can be none now. And if he receives that of Ohio, what Northern State is he likely to come short of? The opposition in New York cannot make head without some support from other States, and if Ohio cannot be counted on to back the pretensions of Gov. Hill, which one of the Northern delegations can be reckoned on? The influence of the Ohio Convention will be little less than decisive, in our opinion, in suppressing any revolt that may be brewing in New York, and in bringing this State as a unit to the support of Mr. Cleveland next year.

But the endorsement of President Cleveland is not the most significant part of the Ohio Democratic platform. The declaration against the repeal or reduction of the tax on liquors is of even more moment, since that has now become an issue of immediate and irrepressible interest. What is involved in it is, that if the tax on distilled and fermented liquors stands, the tariff *must be reduced*. How it shall be reduced is another question, but that something must be done to lessen the revenue from duties on imports is certain. The Ohio Democrats have generally followed the lead of Mr. Randall in tariff matters, and Mr. Randall has declared himself in favor of abolishing the whole internal-revenue system in order to avoid tariff reduction. In a recent letter to the St. Louis *Republican*, he reiterated his belief that the right way to reduce the surplus was to abolish excise taxes. These, he said, were "war taxes." "It has been," he continued, "the unvarying precedent of Democratic administrations under like circumstances to abolish the internal-revenue taxes just so soon as the necessities of war had rendered them unnecessary." Probably Mr. Randall's letter was written at this juncture in order to produce an effect in Ohio, but the effect cannot have been flattering to the author. The Ohio Democrats have declared as plainly as possible that they are no longer under Mr. Randall's lead.

If Mr. Randall cannot rely upon the Ohio Democrats in the coming session of Congress, it is hard to see where he may look for recruits. Those of Louisiana will naturally side with him in opposing any reduction of the sugar duties, but it is certain that if the whiskey tax stands, the sugar tax must fall in whole or in part. In his St. Louis letter Mr. Randall took pains to say that he was opposed to the crippling of any industry, no matter in what part of the Union it was situated. Of course he referred to Louisiana. The sugar industry of that State, always a cripple, is now more in need of crutches than ever before. Mr. Randall is accordingly committed against any reduction of the duties on that article. His allies in Ohio are committed by the necessities of the case to the contrary policy. An issue of vital and immediate and healthy interest is thus raised in the party. That it cannot be confined to one party is evident, since the Republicans must take sides also between whiskey and sugar. We observed a few days since that the Boston *Advertiser* had taken sides with whiskey. We notice now that the Boston *Journal* is the champion of sugar. There is room for high debate on both sides of the party line.

THE FACTS AS TO THE POST-OFFICES.

THE Republican organs of late have been publishing sundry lists of figures intended to show that there really has been a "clean sweep" in the offices since Mr. Cleveland became President. The most obvious comment upon these tables was that it was very odd, if they were correct, that there should be such bitter complaints as are still heard from Democratic spoilsmen about the great number of Republicans still retained in office. If the Republicans have all gone, one cannot understand why a Bourbon politician like ex-Congressman Seney should demand, as he did in his speech at the Ohio Democratic Convention last week, that "all Republicans remaining in office be promptly turned out and their places filled with honest and capable Democrats," and should condemn a system "that keeps Republicans in and Democrats out of the public service."

As to one department of the public service, and that the most important both in the number of offices which it controls and their nearness to the people, we are able to present the exact facts. Nearly half of all the places under the Federal Government are post-offices, the number of which now reaches the great total of 55,157. The changes in these offices for the fiscal year ending with June 30 have just been compiled, and we are able to compare them with the changes for each previous fiscal year back to the time when Grant became President in 1869. These figures afford an absolutely perfect basis for determining the extent to which partisanship has controlled the management of the Post-office Department.

Appointments as postmasters are made upon the deaths of incumbents; upon changes of names and sites; upon the establishment of new offices; upon resignations and the expirations of commissions; and upon removals and suspensions. The number of deaths does not vary greatly from year to year, being upon the average one in every hundred; and the appointments upon changes of names and sites are still fewer. These two classes may therefore be dismissed from consideration. The number of new offices depends upon the business development of the country, and should also be left out of the account.

"Few die and none resign," is a proverb so generally accepted that most people will be surprised to learn that under Republican administrations appointments upon resignations and the expirations of commissions never fell below 13 per cent. a year, and sometimes reached 16 per cent., as in 1882-83, or even 17 per cent., as in 1874-5. Almost all of these appointments are upon resignations, as the postmasters appointed by the President alone have a fixed term, and these constitute only four out of every hundred postmasters, the remaining ninety-six serving only at the pleasure of the Postmaster-General. When Mr. Hayes became President there were 37,345 post-offices, and during his term 23,283 appointments were made upon resignations and expirations of commissions, less than 2,000 of the 23,283 belonging to the latter of these two classes. Examination of the records shows that under Grant, Hayes, and Arthur the changes in offices upon resignations and expirations of commissions rose as high as 34 per cent. in the first two years of a new administration and never sank below 30 per cent. Under Mr. Cleveland, appointments of this sort have numbered 9,112 in the first fiscal year and 6,863 in the second, which amounts to a trifle over 31 per cent. of the whole number of offices when he became President (51,252 on June 30, 1885). It is thus obvious that, while there may have been a few compulsory resignations of postmasters who knew that they deserved removal and were pretty sure to get their deserts if they tried to hold on, the changes in this class of appointments, upon resignations and expirations of commission, have not been more numerous than has long been the average under Republican Presidents.

There remains the class of appointments upon removals and suspensions of the incumbents. The number of such changes in the first two years of a Republican administration was 1,881 out of 33,244 offices, or about 6 per cent., when Grant entered upon his second term; 1,306 out of 37,345, or above 3 per cent., in the first two years of Hayes; and 1,726 out of 44,512, or 4 per cent., in the first two years of Arthur. In other words, while the Republicans remained in power, from three to six per cent. of the postmasters were always removed in the first half of an administration. Under Cleveland, appointments upon removals and suspensions numbered 9,566 in the first fiscal year and 2,584 in the second

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—a total of 12,150 out of 51,252 offices, or a little over 23 per cent. In other words, whereas, in the first two years under Republican Presidents, Hayes removed three Republican postmasters out of every hundred, Arthur four out of every hundred, and Grant six out of every hundred, Cleveland in the same period has removed twenty-three out of every hundred. It is of course fair to presume that Republican administrations removed Republican postmasters only for the good of the service, so that it may be taken for granted that in the first half of a Presidential term from three to six postmasters out of every hundred ought to be turned out without any reference to politics. Upon this assumption, the removals in two years under Cleveland, 23 per cent. of the whole number, are but 20 per cent. larger than were made in a corresponding period under Hayes, 19 per cent. larger than under Arthur, and only 17 per cent. larger than in the same space of Grant's second term. Upon the least favorable showing it would consequently appear, that not over 20 postmasters out of every 100 have been removed solely in order to put Democrats in the places of Republicans.

The salient feature of these figures is this: A Democratic President was inaugurated after his party had been for twenty-four years out of power, and found 51,252 post-offices which the Democratic motto, "To the victor belong the spoils," would have turned over summarily from Republican incumbents to Democrats. After two years of his administration it is found that he has removed only 23 out of every 100 of these Republicans, while experience shows that from 3 to 6 out of every 100 were removed by Republican Presidents in corresponding periods for the good of the service. Where a spoilsman might have made a "clean sweep" in three months, a President who believes in civil-service reform has removed less than one-quarter in two years. We do not understand that the most censorious Republican critic complains because Democrats have been appointed to newly established post-offices, or to offices made vacant by the death or resignation of the incumbents. The only grounds of criticism are that a number of Republicans holding offices filled by Presidential appointment, who deserved reappointment for faithful service and freedom from offensive partisanship, were not reappointed when their terms expired; and that holders of fourth-class offices have been removed for partisan reasons. As to the former class, every candid person must admit that there have been cases where the reform principle demanded a reappointment, but the number of such cases has been only a small proportion of the whole number of changes in the small class of Presidential post-offices. The real complaint of the organs, however, has been that there has been a virtually complete change in the post-offices of the country for political reasons since Mr. Cleveland became President. The sufficient answer to this charge is the showing from the official records that at the outside only twenty out of every hundred postmasters have been removed for what can be considered partisan reasons in two years; and that, supposing Democrats to have been selected in every case where appointments were made upon deaths, establishment of new offices, changes of names and sites, resignations, and expirations of commissions, and removals and suspensions, the total number of Democrats thus appointed in two years amounts to 36,771, while the total number of post-offices is now 55,157, so that more than one-third of the offices which were held by Republicans when Mr. Cleveland came in, are still held by Republicans. It only remains to add that nearly four-fifths of the removals and suspensions occurred during the first of the two years, and that the number of such changes during the last fiscal year—2,584—did not greatly exceed the number repeatedly reached in a year under Republican Presidents, as 1,021 under Arthur in 1881-2, and 1,045 under Grant in 1875-6. This indicates that for the past year such changes have been made in comparatively few cases except where the good of the service required them.

Civil-service reformers have found much to criticise and condemn in the Cleveland Administration, but those who have been most disappointed must confess that it has done a great work for the cause of reform when such a showing as this can be made for it.

HOW PENSIONS ARE "WORKED UP."

A CORRESPONDENT in a Western State sends us a little pamphlet, recently received by a physician of his town, which casts a flood of light upon the manner in which pensions are "worked up." It is entitled 'The Soldiers' Manual,' and is further described upon the title-page as "a hand-book of useful and reliable information, showing who are entitled to pensions, increase, bounty, pay, etc." The pamphlet is prepared and published by a firm of "general war-claim attorneys," whose names are given, and who have offices in Cleveland, Ohio, Chicago, Ill., Detroit, Mich., and Washington, D. C.

In general appearance the 'Manual' bears no little resemblance to the average patent-medicine almanac. In the character of its contents the resemblance also holds to a certain extent. The assurances of perfect cure for any known disease find here their counterpart, and there is the usual list of "testimonials" from people who have taken the remedy and certify that it is everything which is claimed for it. There is, however, one important difference. The patent-medicine almanac calls for the expenditure of money, and at best promises only a cure of disease. The 'Manual,' on the other hand, holds out to everybody the hope of a regular monthly allowance from the Federal Treasury for the remainder of his days—and all this at the trifling cost of a single fee to the agents who are employed.

The "Introduction" opens with a reference to the importance of the subject of soldiers' claims against the general Government; points out that many veterans with just claims have failed to get them allowed because they "have been groping about in the dark"; and magnanimously adds, "It is to supply this want, and to assist our old comrades in arms in procuring the aid provided by a generous nation, that this book is published." The suspicion of a selfish motive is frankly met by the declaration that "we offer no apology for the fact that at the same time we are pointing out the way by which a favorable settlement of claims can be secured, we call the attention of the public to our own business of prosecuting such claims," due stress being laid upon the affirmation that "not one claimant in twenty can properly fill out his own claim, and draft the necessary papers to establish the same." With the final statement that the book is made as full and definite as possible, "and whoever receives it may safely depend upon it that each and every statement herein contained, and the different definitions and constructions of law, are correct in every particular," the reader is introduced to fifteen pages packed full of information as to the ease with which money may be got out of the Treasury.

The embarrassment of riches renders selection a matter of difficulty, and we take a few sample morsels almost at random. Under the heading of "Invalid Pensions," the reader is informed that "there is no particular class of diseases upon which pensions are granted"; that "often a very slight gunshot or shell wound gives a soldier title"; that "the disabilities arising from disease, wounds, or injuries may be slight, and yet a rating will be made"; and finally, that "it often happens that in some kinds of obscure diseases no physical signs can be discerned, and yet, if the claimant presents such evidence as would satisfy the mind of a candid and impartial person that a pensionable disability does exist, a pension will be allowed at a rate proportionate to the degree of disability proved." The impression left upon the mind of any old soldier not now receiving a pension upon reading this department of the 'Manual,' must almost inevitably be that he is entitled to one, and that he had better begin efforts to get it. This impression is ingeniously cultivated by a request that he will send for a list of questions which an applicant must answer, and the statement that the agents "charge nothing for advice," so that it will not cost anything to make a trial.

The case of the man who now receives a pension but would like a larger one is next taken in hand. He is assured that "it often happens that the original allowance is fixed at too low a rate, by reason of the failure of the attorney to properly present the claim, or from other causes," but that "we address ourselves earnestly to supplying the deficiencies in the practice of others." Moreover, "as we devote our whole time and attention to the prosecution of claims, it would be a marvel if, with ordinary intelligence, we did not become expert in bringing out for our client's benefit the strong points in his case. To our long experience and devotion to our clients' interest," the impartial authors add, "may be attributed our success where others have failed." Suggestions as to the grounds upon which an increase may be asked follow, while later in the 'Manual' is given a most appetizing list of "a few increase pension claims recently allowed through the offices" of this firm, among which we note $4 a month to $16, $4 to $24, $4 to $50, $6 to $50, and $10 to $72.

The man whose claim has been rejected finds here encouragement. "A great many claims," says the 'Manual,' "are rejected by the De-

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partment upon some technicality, and for various other reasons. But that doesn't end the matter by any means. A claim is not finally disposed of with us *until it is settled favorable to our client's interest.* Our long experience in the business enables us to handle rejected cases quite successfully where other attorneys have failed. Parties whose cases have been rejected should write to us at once." If worst comes to worst, and even with "us" as attorneys the claim is finally disposed of at the Department adversely to the claimant, "the only recourse is to secure a special act of Congress," and "we will undertake the prosecution of claims before Congress on satisfactory terms." This branch of the business explains the way in which so many unworthy private pension bills become laws—unless they encounter the obstacle of a Presidential veto.

Space will not permit further quotations from this interesting work; but to illustrate still more clearly the way in which business is sought, we must quote the letter, marked "Personal," which was addressed to the Western physician, and is doubtless a copy of a letter sent throughout the country by thousands: "Is there not among your numerous patients some soldier or seaman whose present disability is fairly traceable to his service, and who for that reason is entitled to a pension or an increase of pension? If so, you can do nothing that will be so fully appreciated by him as to refer him to our agency, where his claim is certain to be successfully prosecuted. The claims of the widows and orphans of deceased soldiers and seamen also receive at our hands diligent attention."

'The Soldiers' Manual' fully justifies President Cleveland in saying, in his veto of the Dependent Pension Bill: "It is sad, but nevertheless true, that already in the matter of procuring pensions there exists a widespread disregard of truth and good faith, *stimulated by those who as agents undertake to establish claims for pensions,* heedlessly entered upon by the expectant beneficiary, and encouraged or at least not condemned by those unwilling to obstruct a neighbor's plans." And, after glancing through this little book, every candid reader must agree with the President's further remark, in the same message, that "there can be no doubt that the race after the pensions offered by this bill would not only stimulate weakness and pretended incapacity for labor, but put a further premium on dishonesty and mendacity."

TRUSTS THAT SHOULD BE DISTRUSTED.

THE movement in financial and industrial circles for the creation of "Trusts" has seemed to lag somewhat of late. The Cattle Trust, which was intended to embrace all the great ranges of the West, has been pretty much discredited, and the India Rubber Trust has not been able to get a fair start, although it is still under consideration. The Cotton-Seed Oil Trust, which was launched last year, has received a decided back-set since the publication of its financial statement. An attempt is now making to create a Straw Board Trust, but the prospects of success are extremely gloomy. A White Lead Trust was mooted in Wall Street some time ago; but as nothing has been heard of it for several months, it may be assumed that the weaker establishments in that branch of trade have not been able to persuade the stronger ones to divide losses with them. The latest Trust of which the public have any information is a Whiskey Trust, to be composed of all the distilleries in the West, to be capitalized at $10,000,000, and its stock to be listed if possible on the Exchanges of New York and Chicago.

We have explained in previous articles that these Trusts are illegal or extra-legal corporations, created for an anti-social purpose, *i. e.*, the establishment of monopolies. They are not immoral, but are extremely hazardous. Those who put their money into such Trusts have no assurance that they will ever see a dollar of it again. When men of business part with their property, they usually require something that they can take into court and offer as evidence of ownership, as, for example, a share of stock or a bond secured by mortgage. The certificate of a Trust is neither one nor the other. It is not even evidence of partnership, in the legal sense. If it were such, nobody would for a moment think of going into it, because partners are liable without limit for the debts of the firm, and in the case of a Trust partnership nobody is allowed any share in the management except the trustees. Any member of the firm, great or small, might be made bankrupt without knowing when or how.

A Trust of this sort is an attempt to suppress competition—that is, to create a monopoly in the supply of some indispensable article. As there are always some persons or corporations less favorably situated or less skilful than others, but who nevertheless can "demoralize" the market by gradually sinking their own or their creditors' capital, a proposition to bring all the producers into a common "pool," to regulate production by some central authority and to divide the profits of the trade among all the members, has a certain amount of plausibility. The Straw Board trade, whose annual meeting was recently held at Akron, Ohio, is now in a fit condition to be "Trusted." A correspondent sends us a statement of affairs of this branch of industry, from which it appears that the present production of straw board is about 50 per cent. greater than the country can use. The manufacturers are obliged to "take care of" about 120 tons of product per day. Taking care of it means preventing it from coming on the market and knocking the price down below the point of profit. The cheapest way to take care of the surplus is to prevent it from being made—that is, to shut down one-third of the mills temporarily, and support their proprietors in idleness. This might possibly be done for a time, longer or shorter; but the trouble of selecting the mills to be closed, and fixing the terms upon which they are to be closed, is very great. Nobody likes to discharge his hands and lose his place in the market, thus virtually effacing himself from the business world. On the other hand, no mill can run on two-thirds time and keep its hands together.

In this case, or in any other where "overproduction" is complained of, the temptation is strong to bring all the producers together and get them to an agreement to maintain prices. This can only be done by limiting the supply. If all would enter into the agreement and abide by it, and if no new experimenter should start in the same business, the end sought could be reached without the intervention of a Trust. In that case nobody would think of putting his property out of his own control and accepting an uncertain, nondescript paper certificate in place of it. But such agreements, as a general rule, will not be kept, in many cases cannot be, because the parties are driven by debts or other extraneous circumstances, to put more than their quota of goods upon the market. Moreover, there are always new comers who fancy that they can produce the article a little cheaper than the old ones. There are others who think that the "combine" are making too much money and are therefore fit subjects for blackmail. Such a state of trade, being wholly artificial, cannot last unless reinforced by absolutely despotic authority. The agreement not to produce more than the allotted amount breaks down, competition is resumed, and eventually the weaker, the least skilful, and the worst situated go down.

Those in the latter category are the ones who have most faith in the healing efficiency of a Trust which promises to supply the despotic authority needed to hold everybody up to the rules. Of course, if all the competitors in the trade pass the control of their property out of their own hands, remaining only as salaried managers, they are disabled from violating the rules. But the demand for the goods has not been increased, nor has the capacity to produce them been diminished. The same plant and the same number of persons, employers and employees, have to be remunerated. The spur of individual enterprise is taken away, together with the rewards of exceptional talent. But although the current of competition is dammed up for the time being, nothing can prevent new capital and labor from entering the field, as it will be pretty sure to do. If the Trust makes money, new enterprises will be started to force an entrance and share the profits. If it is not successful, it will be inferred that money is to be made by attacking the monopoly and breaking it down.

Probably a few experiments will be needed to convince the believers in Trusts that the law of competition is not to be circumvented. The only cure for overproduction is the rule which provides that slovens and incapables shall disappear, and the fittest survive. Trusts cannot prevent, although they may hinder and delay, its operation at the expense of the skilful and energetic, and to the detriment of society at large.

GEORGE ELIOT'S RELIGIOUS TRANSITION.

Two at least of the eminent reviewers whose pens were busy over Mr. Cross's Life of his wife, early in 1885, were greatly struck by the suddenness, as they esteemed it, of her abandonment of the religious beliefs in which she had been reared. "It is perfectly clear that she had all but made up her mind within those eleven days," said Mr. R. H. Hutton (in the *Contemporary Review* for March), referring to the Coventry visit, "to renounce Christianity." And Lord Acton (in the *Nineteenth Century* for March) spoke of the same period as a time of "acute crisis," "abrupt tran-

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sition," and "sudden revolution," when "from Jonathan Edwards to Spinoza she went over at one step." Now, it would be singular indeed if George Eliot's life should have given the lie so completely to the one great teaching which she bent her genius to illustrate—the teaching, namely, that whim or fancied self-direction has little to do in the great changes of life, in comparison with the silent strength of causes long at work, and truly present even in a decision which seems wholly without foretokens. The irony of such an unconscious refutation of one's theories by one's practice is, of course, abstractly possible, and is no doubt often exhibited in biographies whose revelations about the writer's personality unwittingly rob his volumes of their chief value. But it would seem that even the meagre records of the first twenty-two years of George Eliot's life should have been enough to suggest, at least, those subtly developing forces of her mind which issued in their natural result, though to her kindred, friends, perhaps to herself, it seemed as if nothing in her life had pointed to it. To us, at any rate, the hints at the coming change are frequent in the pages which describe her foregoing life. They are worth examining, not only on the ground of the importance of anything which may help us to understand so rare a life and genius, but also, and much more, because George Eliot is, in a sort, a representative of many to whom similar changes of view, on similar subjects, have come and are coming increasingly, with the result, often, of a similar appearance of startling abruptness.

If the premonitions of the change are few, it is what should be expected from the slight material. Why so little is given us bearing on the time of George Eliot's religious transition, we do not yet know. Very possibly it was her own choice that it should be indicated only, not explained. Certainly in her later life she was reticent about this early experience—at least so far as taking the public into her confidence is concerned. That she refrained from portraying it recognizably in any of her works, just as she never allowed any light to be thrown by her novels upon her relations to Lewes, may go to show that she wished the one feature of her life, as the other, to remain in the shadow. We have her own early expression, "I do not attach much value to a disclosure of religious feelings," as a suggestion of a native shrinking from making a parade of such matters. At any rate, the truth is, that the whole account of the first momentous change in her life is extremely brief, counting both direct description and allusion; so that faint foregleams of an obscurely described event are all we can hope for.

On the side of natural endowment we can find abundant prevision of the translator of Strauss in the pietistic girl, Marian Evans, when we glance at her immense eagerness after knowledge, and her remarkable power of acquirement and assimilation. Her teachers and schoolmates may have been surprised at her religious development, but it is evident that they were prepared for a display of strength and brilliance of intellect. Her school life gave ample promise of that. The glimpses given us of her range of reading and thought, in the years that followed, show a rapidly expanding mind and a deepening grasp. Her studies do not appear to have been highly systematic, or directed with great steadiness of aim, but for that very reason they made for mental freedom. The native play of her mind, feeling its own way, was less hampered than it would have been, even while achieving apparently larger results, if following definite and prescribed lines. In her case, as in so many others, "aimless reading" was more of a blessing than the peril it is often said to be. Doubtless the best way to produce a draught-horse, warranted to walk quietly in the beaten road, not to be restive under the bit, and never to jump a fence, is to subject him to "discipline" and "system"; but it takes wide ranging over fenceless prairies, free browsing in valley and on mountain, to develop the horse written of in the book of Job. It is clear, too, that George Eliot's thirst for knowledge was not a mere acquisitiveness. She early showed the philosophical trend of her mind. Not learning, but its results, she craved. What seems to have been a part of her instinctive genius in her creative writing - the ability, that is, to see into the causes of actions, to disentangle the complex of character—was undoubtedly cultivated by the motive and method of her early studies in history and literature—a search not after dates and dynasties, but historical movements, with their reasons; a desire to know not masterpieces, but national character revealed in them. Almost pathetic is that half-apologetic letter of hers in partial defence of novel-reading, and illustrative, too, of this side of her nature: "We should, I think, qualify ourselves to *understand* them" (allusions to characters of fiction, she means). There speaks a mind impatient of ignorance, eager to lay itself alongside the fact. George Eliot's power of acquirement, stimulated by insatiable desire, was sure to bring her into contact with writings broader than her sect; and her reflective spirit was certain to deal with them at last, not in frightened prejudice, but in a calm endeavor to understand.

There is evidence, also, that she had come into touch, partially at least, with ideas of exactly the kind to give her an unfelt push in the direction she afterwards followed deliberately, long before those "eleven days" to which Mr. Hutton restricts his view. That she had begun the reading of natural science as early as September, 1839, appears from a letter to Miss Lewis, of that date, in which she uses a scientific illustration—the earliest, perhaps, of the long series to be found in her writings. And the allusion is one of peculiar suggestiveness, since it is to the science of geology. Now the revolution of that science was being wrought in those very years by Lyell, whose 'Principles of Geology' appeared in 1830-3, his even more popular 'Elements' issuing from the press in 1838. To such a reader of his books as George Eliot must have been, the result of his method would have been to revolutionize not merely geology, but the whole world of thought. Take the sub-title of Lyell's 'Principles,' "An Attempt to Explain the Former Changes of the Earth's Surface by Reference to Causes now in Operation," and the very familiarity of the idea at present indicates how novel it was fifty years ago. It was a new method. More in that than in the details lay its value and power to widen the horizon of the mind. The easy short-cuts of the catastrophists, invoking a sort of miraculous agency to piece out their ignorance, had to give room for the truer conception of steady sequence and uniform causation. It was the true inductive spirit coming fully to the birth in that branch of science. Accepted and justified there, it inevitably would extend its jurisdiction over all departments of knowledge, as the only real organ of inquiry and discovery. And it happened that George Eliot soon came in contact with a writer applying, in some degree, this method of inquiry to the question of the origins of the Christian Church. In August, 1840, she read Isaac Taylor's 'Ancient Christianity and the Doctrines of the Oxford Tracts for the Times.' To a reader of to-day, the great effect of this book upon Miss Evans—so great that her aunt thought it chiefly responsible for "unsettling her views of Christianity"—seems almost unaccountable. Certainly nothing could have been further from the ardent Taylor's intention than to "unsettle" any one's belief, except that of the incipient Romanists in the Church of England. His book is tiresome reading now—verbose and quite too furious. Here, again, it was not so much what the writer aimed at or accomplished, as his method, which carried to a mind more philosophical than his own an influence greater than he was consciously exerting. His endeavor was to refute the Oxford appeal to antiquity by exposing antiquity. In place of the Oxford idea of the church of the first three centuries—a church miraculously guided, supernaturally pure, the model for all ages—Taylor showed that we must substitute a very different conception, a church more affected by heathenism, more worldly, more ignorant, more corrupt, than the church of the nineteenth century. Judged by modern standards, his book is decidedly defective; in its time it did its work. The shock that it would give to the ultra-evangelicalism of George Eliot's inherited religious beliefs we can easily see to have been great; its deeper suggestions to her reflective intellect we can imagine from the issue of those influences of which it appears to have been one of the most powerful.

Mr. Cross, then, would seem to have good reason for thinking that there was a "half-unconscious preparation" of George Eliot's mind for the Hennell and Bray teachings, long before she met those friends. If it had not been from them, it would have been from some others that she would have received, and that speedily, the last impulse needed to make her conscious of a severance from the faith of her fathers. Her mind was ripe for the change. The Hennell seed fell into prepared ground. It is clear that she had been for some time strenuously inquiring into the evidence for her religious beliefs, into the relation between belief and conduct. Some of the traditional arguments in support of her sect she had already found to be hollow, "the easily wielded weapons for morning-calling and evening-party controversialists." Especially dissatisfied had she become with the confident assertions of her religious teachers, to the effect that their particular beliefs were the only means to a virtuous life. "It appears to me," she writes, "that there is unfairness in arbitrarily selecting a train of circumstances and a set of characters as a development of a class of opinions. In this way we might make atheism appear wonderfully calculated to promote social happiness." To a mind in which such thoughts were fermenting came Mr. Hennell's 'Enquiry concerning the Origin of Christianity.' Lord Acton is more witty than wise in saying, "Between Hennell's 'Enquiry' and George Eliot's answer there is no proportion." Granted, if the answer were to that book alone. Granted, if the alternative is to regard that book as either very profound or valuable. Much of it is, of course, obsolete. Many of its positions were from the first untenable. But, admitting the wreck which has overtaken many of its arguments and criticisms, its standpoint and method remain, and will remain. It is a sober, thoughtful endeavor to explain facts naturally, by patient, inductive inquiry, rejecting the short and easy method of supernaturalism. It is the method of Lyell applied to the exploration and explanation of stratified religion. It is the spirit of Taylor at work in the first century, in the first thirty years of the first century, not limited to the sub-apostolical church. So, at least, must George Eliot have felt it. For her it was simply the last step in a path in which she had been long advancing. After this she was committed to the truth, and the truth alone. If she were to inquire at all, seek to know at all, she saw that she must use the same and only real method everywhere, in geology, in history, in religion. The great change for her consisted essentially in recognizing that. It was not so much a change in belief as in her conception of

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the way of arriving at belief. Certainly she got far away from the peculiar views of the Hennells and Brays in her later life; yet it is not to be supposed that she ever abandoned the way of looking at the world which they helped her to form. That vision splendid is not easily forgotten or lost.

Even if one deny that the hints of the coming change, now adduced, amount to anything, and even if the whole process has to be imagined as begun and finished within Mr. Hutton's eleven days, he should have been the last man to have been so greatly surprised at the rapidity of such a spiritual transformation. He and his school are accustomed to speak about a spiritual phenomenon known as conversion. A change of view and of life more sweeping than that of George Eliot, they are accustomed to look upon as entirely normal, if labelled conversion, though it should be alleged to have taken place in eleven hours or eleven minutes. Doubtless such great changes of purpose do take place with this suddenness—as far as their coming to consciousness and to manifestation is concerned. It is of the nature of a spiritual transition to be thus sharply marked in appearance, new views of truth coming as in a flash, old things passing away like a dream. But Mr. Hutton is at fault in not seeing that the experience of George Eliot which astonishes him is strictly analogous to the experience of conversion which does not astonish him at all. As a critic, at any rate, he should have been able to forget his own convictions, for the moment, and not have argued that what would have been involved for him in such a change as came to George Eliot, must have been involved for her. "To me," he says, "the remarkable point is, that George Eliot felt herself relieved of a burden rather than robbed of a great spiritual mainstay by the change." Why "remarkable," except for the reason that he could not imagine the change to be anything but for the worse; could not think it

> "Shame! to stand in God's creation,
> And doubt truth's sufficiency"?

As a critic, whatever he might have done as an advocate, he should not have overlooked George Eliot's own testimony, found in her letter to Miss Hennell, two years later: "When the soul is just liberated from the wretched giant's bed of dogmas on which it has been racked and stretched ever since it began to think, there is a feeling of exultation and strong hope." Such language should have been enough to suggest to him, even if George Eliot's whole bearing during the time in question did not, that she had found, instead of losing, "a great spiritual mainstay."

Count Tolstoi has a suggestive remark, to the effect that the day after a great decision, of far-reaching character, the soul that has struggled its way to it thinks the choice might easily have turned the other way; that a year after, this seems doubtful; that ten years after, the choice is seen to have been inevitable. Such a decision can be "sudden" only in the sense that it must be referred to a certain date; no one but the dupe of a Hindu juggler can suppose that the flower bursts into bloom ten minutes after the seed is sown.

HUGO'S 'THINGS SEEN.'

PARIS, July 11, 1887.

THE literary executors of Victor Hugo have just issued a volume, a large volume, of his notes, under the name of 'Choses vues.' There is no preface to the volume. These "things seen" were seen between 1838 and 1875, and are arranged in a chronological, not in a logical, order. The publishers do not tell us if they chose from among other notes, if they will or will not publish other volumes. We must be content with the work as it is. It is evident that Hugo, if he did not keep a Journal, was in the habit of noting down some of his impressions, and of keeping a memorandum of some of his conversations with important people. These notes were taken as documents for future books. They have a literary form—some of them have a minuteness—which is not found in ordinary memoirs.

The mind of the great poet was, so to speak, photographic. When he is placed before an impressive scene, he reproduces it with a fulness, an exactness, truly extraordinary. No details, no contrast, no shade of color is lost. He sees everything and can remember everything. Read, for instance, the description of the Chapel of the Invalides, which received the remains of Napoleon, brought back from the island of St. Helena. Even Balzac cannot describe a room with greater minuteness. Hugo's description is, so to speak, an inventory. His eye was evidently as sensitive as the photographer's plate. His memory was tenacious, but he took the precaution, when he returned home, to fix his impressions. There are a thousand pages in 'Notre Dame de Paris,' in the 'Misérables,' which were manifestly written from such notes, taken after the long and careful observation of some object. There is in such pages a realism which stands in contrast with the natural vagueness of the poetic mind. There were, so to speak, two men in Hugo: one describes things like a naturalist or realist of the modern school, like a Zola; the other sees things as mere phantoms, as forms of some unknown invisible forces. In these 'Choses vues' we see the two men, and we see them at work preparing their task.

It would have been very interesting to have the note-book of Victor Hugo during the early part of his career, at the time when he held very royalistic opinions. His literary executors have strong political passions, and it is a pity they did not show us Hugo as he was when he wrote the 'Odes et Ballades,' in the spring of his extraordinary genius. We have also been deprived of the notes of 1830, a very important year, the year of the Revolution. All Victor Hugo says about this critical year is found in a conversation he had in 1843 with Royer-Collard, at the French Academy. Royer-Collard tells him that the Revolution of 1830 was caused entirely by Charles X.

"'It is said he had bad advisers. It is false—false. No one advised him. It has been said that he consulted Cardinal de la Farre, M. de Latil, M. de Polignac, his suite. Would to Heaven he had done so! None of those who surrounded him had lost their heads as completely as he did; none of them would have given him such bad advice as he gave himself. All those who surrounded the King—those who were called the courtiers—were wiser than himself.'

"M. Royer-Collard remained silent for a moment, then continued, with a sad smile, which he often assumed during the conversation:

"'Wiser—that is to say, less insane.'

"Another pause; then he added:

"'No, nobody advised him.'

"And after another pause:

"'And nothing advised him. He had always, from his youth upward, preserved his own identity. He was still the Comte d'Artois; he had not changed. Not to change, if one should live to be eighty years of age, that was the only quality which he valued. He called that having a *personality*. He said that since the Revolution there had been in France and in the era only two men, M. de La Fayette and himself. He esteemed M. de La Fayette.'"

The new volume has many interesting pages on King Louis Philippe. The King had made Victor Hugo a peer, at the solicitation of his son, the Duke of Orleans, and Hugo felt almost grateful to him. In the 'Misérables' there is a fine chapter on Louis Philippe, where he is called "un roi de grand jour." In a conversation with the King in September, 1844, there are some amusing details on the education of Louis Philippe and on Mme. de Genlis:

"King Louis Philippe said to me the other day, 'I was never in love but once in my life.'

"'And with whom, Sire?' 'With Madame de Genlis.' 'Ah, but she was your tutor.'

"The King laughed and replied:

"'As you say. And a strict tutor, I declare to you. She brought up my sister and myself quite ferociously. Getting up at six in the morning, summer and winter; fed upon milk, roast meats, and bread; never any luxuries, never any sweetmeats; plenty of work and no play. It was she who accustomed me to sleep upon boards. She made me learn a great variety of manual work; thanks to her I can work a little at every trade, including that of a barber-surgeon. I bleed my man like *Figaro*. I am a cabinet-maker, a groom, a mason, a blacksmith. She was systematic and severe. From a very little boy I was afraid of her; I was a weak, lazy, and cowardly boy; I was afraid of mice! She made me a tolerably bold man, with some amount of spirit. As I grew up I perceived that she was very pretty. I knew not what possessed me when she was present. I was in love and did not know it. She, who was an adept in the matter, understood and guessed what it was at once. She used me very badly. It was at the time when she was intimate with Mirabeau. She constantly said to me, "Come, now, Monsieur de Chartres, you great booby, why are you always at my skirts?" She was thirty-six years of age, I was seventeen.'"

Mme. de Genlis saw her pupil on the throne, and died three months after the Revolution of July. She merely said of his elevation, "I am very glad of it." She was always in money difficulties, being very free-handed and extravagant. She had adopted two children, Pamela and Casimir, merely because they were handsome. During the emigration Mme. de Genlis went to London with Mme. Adelaide and Pamela. These ladies had very little money, and lived in lodgings.

"It was winter time. Really, Monsieur Hugo, they did not dine every day. The tidbits were for Pamela. My poor sister sighed, and was the victim, the Cinderella. That is just how it was. My sister and Pamela, in order to economize the wretched hundred louis, slept in the same room. There were two beds, but only one blanket. My sister had it at first, but one evening Madame de Genlis said to her, 'You are well and strong; Pamela is very cold—I have put the blanket on her bed.' My sister was annoyed, but dared not revel; she contented herself with shivering every night. However, my sister and myself loved Madame de Genlis."

Both Mme. Adelaide and the King visited her till the last days of her life, and always showed her much respect and deference.

Victor Hugo evidently liked Louis Philippe, his simplicity, his earnestness. He found him "gay, affable, and fond of conversing." Sometimes, however, he found him sad. One evening, at Saint Cloud, the King told him to sit down by him on a sofa, and said to him:

"Monsieur Hugo [this was in 1844], I am misunderstood. I am said to be proud, I am said to be clever. That means that I am a traitor. It grieves me. I am simply an honest man. I go the straight road. Those who are acquainted with me know that I am not wanting in frankness. Thiers, when he was working with me, told me one day that we did not agree: 'Sire, you are proud, but I am prouder than you.' 'The proof that that is not so,' I replied, 'is that you tell me so.' M. de Talleyrand said to me one day, 'You will never make anything of Thiers, who, for all that, would be an excellent instrument. But he is one of those men who can only be used on condition of satisfying their requirements; and he will never be satisfied. The misfortune for himself, as well as for you, is that there is no longer any possibility of his being a Cardinal. Thiers is clever, but he has too much of the conceit of a self-made man. Guizot is better. He is a man of weight, a fulcrum; the species is a rare one, and I appreciate it."

One of Hugo's favorite preoccupations was capital punishment, and the state of mind of the people who suffer it. He was still young when he wrote 'Les derniers jours d'un Condamné.' The new volume is full of details on criminal trials. There are long notes on the

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attempts made at various times on the life of Louis Philippe, by Fieschi, by Lecomte, by Joseph Henri (names now forgotten with the exception of the first). There are curious pages on the prisons of the men condemned to capital punishment; on the Duc de Praslin, one of Hugo's colleagues in the House of Peers, who killed his wife and poisoned himself in prison before his trial could take place. There are visits to the Conciergerie, which evidently furnished documents for the 'Misérables.' The general sentiment in all these notes on prisons and on criminals is the same: it is a feeling of pity, of indulgence, of forgiveness. This sentiment found an eloquent expression in the verses which Hugo sent to the Duchess of Orleans, when he asked for the pardon of a republican called Barbès, who had shot a policeman in cold blood in the streets. Alluding to the unfortunate death of the Duke of Orleans and to the age of the Comte de Paris, who was then an infant, he ended thus:

"Grâce au nom de la tombe! grâce au nom du berceau!"

Barbès was pardoned by Louis Philippe, at the request of the Duchess.

There are not many details on the littérateurs of the time. One day, however, Hugo meets Béranger: "a round red face; an eye full of vivacity; long gray hair; sixty years old and more; a good and smiling mouth; an old frock-coat; a large Quaker hat." They walked together a little while (it was in 1847), and Béranger complimented Hugo in these terms:

"'You have done well,' said Béranger to me, 'to be content with the popularity which one can regulate. I have a great deal of trouble to withdraw myself from the popularity which carries you with it. What slave is there like the man who has the misfortune to be popular in this fashion? Look at their Reformist banquets! They kill me! and I have the greatest difficulty in the world to avoid them. I make excuses: I am old, I have a bad digestion, I never dine out, I cannot alter my rule, etc. Bah! You owe it to yourself; a man like you must pay this forfeit, and a hundred others in the same way. I am exaggerating, eh? Nevertheless, one must smile and put the best face on it. Ah yes! but that is merely the part of a court jester. To amuse the prince, to amuse the people—the same thing. Where is the difference between the poet following the Court and the poet following the crowd? Marot in the sixteenth century, Béranger in the nineteenth; but, *mon cher*, it may be the same man! I do not consent to it. I lend myself to it as little as possible. They make a mistake about me. I am a man of opinion, and not of party. Oh, I hate their popularity. I am very much afraid that our poor Lamartine is going in for this popularity. I pity him. He will see what it is! Hugo, I have some common sense. I tell you, be content with the popularity you have; it is true, it is real.'"

He told how in 1829, when he was in prison for his songs, there was no reader of the Liberal papers who did not think he had a right to come and visit him in his prison:

"'Let us go and see Béranger.' They came. And I, who was in the mood to muse upon the silliness of poets, or was seeking for a refrain or a rhyme between the bars of my window, was obliged, instead of finding my verse, to receive my hosier!"

On their way, they arrived before the door of the Tuileries, where Victor Hugo was going, as it was the day of the French Academy:

"'Won't you go in?' said I to him.
"'O no, indeed—this is for you.'
"And he ran away."

Correspondence.

THE MAGIC WAND AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have been much interested in Mr. Stille's letter in the *Nation* of July 14, but the facts which have come under my observation do not seem consistent with his theory. I knew very little of the witch-hazel, and up to three years ago should, if I thought of it at all, have laughed at it as a folly and delusion. We wanted very much a well on our place, which is near the sea, rocky and barren. It is impossible to dig to the depth of more than two feet anywhere near our house without striking the ledge; and as any well must be drilled through the rock, it was hard to decide where to begin operations with no indication to guide us.

At the solicitation of a neighbor, we sent for a man of local reputation with the wand to examine our premises. We half laughed at ourselves for doing this at all; and, indeed, I am not ready now to say that I believe, but neither can I quite say that I disbelieve. He came, and we saw the bending of the twig in his hands. The man, whom I will call "T.," has no particular faith in the hazel. He says any bitter wood will produce the same results. He found water, or rather promise of water, in two places. In the spot nearer the house he said he should get it at a depth of from eighteen to twenty feet. We asked on what he based this estimate, and he said that on retreating from the place (say A) at which the twig, by pointing downward at a right angle with the surface, indicated the presence of water, it would turn at a constantly varying angle, always pointed to that place, till he reached a position at which it made the hypothenuse, or part of the hypothenuse, of an isosceles right-angled triangle; and the distance on the surface from A to that position showed this depth. Now, on your correspondent's theory, how would fatigue affect the position and motion of the hands, making the twig turn in a different direction when he retreated?

We let the matter drop at that time, but the next spring we corresponded with "T." He offered to dig the well on either of the spots, he had marked, by the day or by the foot, at a certain price for either. We were very incredulous, and proposed to him to dig and drill at his own risk—to be paid a fixed sum if he succeeded, nothing if he failed. We hardly thought he would agree to this, but he accepted promptly, naming a comparatively moderate sum, which we were quite willing to pay could we have the water. In the course of the summer he came, bringing with him a man, two horses, a large machine for drilling, and a portable furnace. Various accidents to his machinery delayed him. Sometimes he had to send four miles for repairs—once, forty miles to replace a portion of his machine. Nothing really discouraged him. "T." was on the place more than two weeks, and it was impossible to doubt his entire belief in himself. His assistant had entire faith in him, said he had worked with him for two years, and had never known him to fail to find water where he had begun a well. At a depth of about five feet water began to come in. He said this was only the "light vein," which he always expected to precede the main flow, and went on with his drilling. At a depth of eighteen feet water began to come in freely. At something over nineteen feet he left off. We occupy the place only a few weeks in the year—less than three months—and the well has not yet borne the test of a long summer's use in a dry season; but the flow seems abundant.

"T." has since dug several wells in the vicinity—so far as I know, with success. I advance no theory, nor do I seek to combat any, but if I wanted another well and could get hold of "T.," I certainly should follow him and his wand. Of course a man who has spent many years in finding water will have a better knowledge where the water is likely to be found than the average man.

Your correspondent, if he has not already seen it, may be interested in the account in the "Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research" of their investigation of the subject. Maine.

Notes.

George Routledge & Sons publish immediately Daudet's 'Belle Nivernaise' in the first English version of that amusing story; 'Happy Home Studies for the Young,' and 'Wide Awake Stories for the Young'; and a Life of Buffalo Bill, by Henry L. Williams.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. announce translations of Tolstoi's 'My Confession' and 'Que Faire (What to Do)?'

Benjamin & Bell have in press for speedy publication 'Sea-Spray; or, Facts and Fancies of a Yachtsman,' by S. G. W. Benjamin.

The publishers of Ignatius Donnelly's 'The Great Cryptogram; or, Lord Bacon's Cipher in the so-called Shakspere Plays,' will be R. S. Peale & Co., Chicago.

The Froebel Society, whose Secretary should be addressed at the office of the *Journal of Education*, 86 Fleet St., London, offers prizes to the amount of twenty guineas for the best essay on "The Ethical Teaching of Froebel, as gathered from his Works." Essays, not to exceed in length 7,500 words, must be forwarded as above, with a motto, the writer's name being enclosed in a sealed envelope, by November 1.

Mr. A. F. Bandelier, who has for many months been deep in Mexican historical archives, has returned to Santa Fé, bringing literal copies of more than 600 manuscripts, many of which were totally unknown.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have published the *Journal of Social Science* for June, containing the papers read at the General Meeting of the American Association at Saratoga last year, with the customary synopsis of proceedings and the programme of the meeting appointed at the same place for September 6-10, 1887.

We have received the Journal of the Shakspere Club of the University of North Carolina, containing a lecture and a paper and a record of proceedings—all showing a lively interest. Ladies are not admitted to membership, but the experiment of inviting them on special occasions has been tried with success. In the discussion of "Othello" we observe that the color question was brushed aside with a "Remember that, though a Moor, he was not a negro." Whether "Othello" has had its share of representation on the Southern stage, we can only conjecture.

From Charleston comes an agreeable little 'Historic Sketch of the Parish Church of St. Michael, in the Province of South Carolina,' by George S. Holmes. This edifice has suffered many indignities from man and the elements. Its bells were carried to London by the British in their evacuation of Charleston in 1782, but were recovered. In the civil war they were taken to Columbia for safety, and were burned with the city after Sherman's passage. The fragments were sent to London to be recast—by the successors of the original founders, "of the same amalgam, and in moulds made with the same trammels"—and had to pay duty on reëntering the country, though Congress finally made restitution. The church plate was destroyed or dispersed at the same time and place, and only partly recovered. The church, meantime, was all but knocked to pieces in the bombardment of Charleston, and plundered on the occupation—among other things, of a pulpit ornament, "I. H. S.," inlaid in ivory, restored by a Northern clergyman, who had "no place for them in his church." The cyclone of 1885 blew down several feet of the spire, and the earthquake a year later caused the steeple to set-

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tle eight inches, besides doing other damage to the amount of thousands of dollars. Mr. Holmes's narrative is very minute, remarking the change from pounds to dollars in the church's accounts in 1803, and the disuse of the town-hall function of the church in 1832.

The twelfth volume of the Ninth Census contains the second part of Surgeon Billings's report on the Mortality and Vital Statistics of the United States, and is accompanied by a portfolio of plates and diagrams, though these are also freely used in the text. The loose plates in question display curves of survival and of expectation of life in sundry States and cities, with some British comparisons. A colored group-map of the United States, showing twenty-one grand physical divisions, forms the basis of the discussions of this volume. Thus, in the section on deaths from cancer, the group diagram proves the Southwest Central region to be most exempt for females, both white and black, and a reference to the map locates this region in Arkansas, Northern Louisiana, and Eastern Texas. There is also a general colored map for cancer, as well as for diphtheria (which is very thoroughly treated), consumption, heart-disease, the accidents of birth, etc., etc., from which the most curious and instructive conclusions are drawn at a glance. For instance, it appears that New England got so used to being "left out in the cold," in the old slavery days, that she can now point to the largest number of deaths from old age. It is graphically shown that May, June, and July are, in this country as in Europe, the suicidal months *par excellence*. No attempt has been made to construct a life-table for the United States as a whole, but this has been done for certain cities and for the States of Massachusetts and New Jersey. An excellent index guides the inquirer to any part of this admirable collection of statistics.

A paper on the Medical Mythology of Ireland, by Mr. James Mooney of the Bureau of Ethnology, read before the American Philosophical Society in April last, has been extracted as a pamphlet, and is a very curious and interesting study in folk-lore. These beliefs and customs are, as the author puts it, not "half-forgotten superstitions raked up out of the past," but are treated "as living realities, for such they are in fact." The influence of fairies, of the evil eye, of the blessed wells, and of miscellaneous charms, are illustrated by numerous examples, the witnesses or believers in the effects wrought being living Irish of to-day. We have no space to quote in detail these curiosities of superstition, of which many are peculiar to the Gaelic race, but some have their analogues among uncivilized people the world over. Doubtless persons seriously interested in such studies could procure copies from the author, by whom additions, corrections, and exchanges are desired.

In strong and strange contrast to the foregoing is 'A Brief Review of the Operations of the Home Department in connection with the Cholera Epidemic of the 18th year of Meiji (1885),' a scientific publication by the Government of Japan. It is a clear and concise account of the suppression of the epidemic imported in Nagasaki, and Mr. Nagayo Sensai, the Director of the Sanitary Bureau, is to be congratulated that this happy end was due to his intelligent sanitary measures being carried out, and especially to the inspection and quarantine being enforced, and, as he expresses it, "at the proper time." We believe Japan is the only nation where a sanitary bureau is a direct part of the central government, and we are in no position to speak patronizingly of a people whose interest in and regulation of the public health are so sagacious and effectual. The Report is beautifully illustrated by a colored map, and by many tables and graphic charts.

It is one of the hopeful signs for the physical and indeed the moral progress of the race that hygiene, that the way to live properly, is beginning to be carefully taught in the schools and probably to be discussed in the homes of youth. Many of the sins against life are those of ignorance; and when ignorance is dispelled, rectitude, corporeal and otherwise, is easier. As we have from time to time noticed in these columns, the new books on this subject are of every quality, those of the best order being few. But among the very best is Dr. E. M. Hunt's 'Principles of Hygiene' (Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.). However carelessly the subject may be taught by the use of such a volume as this, it is impossible that some valuable information should not be implanted, to grow, it may be, into a personal tree of life, redeeming what otherwise would be a physiological desert.

A large part of Dr. Hugo Erichsen's 'Cremation of the Dead' (Detroit: D. O. Haynes & Co.) is a jumbled recital of disjointed conditions wherein suicide by fire, punishment, sacrifice, and the irregular as well as systematic burning of the dead are confused. This is not history, and the author shows an imperfect appreciation of the gravity and importance of the subject in using these loose data as though they belonged to it. His desire (and a very praiseworthy one it is) is to spread the practice of cremation among the serious and influential classes; but these will not be inclined towards it by finding the original Topheth lying in the direct line of historical ascent, whether it was, as he suggests, a perpetual pyre for the disposal of the dead (Isaiah xxx, 33), or whether the valley of Hinnom acquired its notoriety as the place for the young "to pass through the fire to Molech" (2 Kings, xxiii, 10). The objection to cremation is almost entirely sentimental, and the association of discordant ideas should be carefully avoided. We fear this little volume, undignified in tone and tangled in method, although setting forth many indisputable truths as to its sanitary advantages over burial, will make few converts for the better way that is struggling for recognition.

"Thousands of young girls who, for various reasons, cannot ride in winter, have every summer within reach horses quite as good as the average of those at city riding-schools, but which they are never allowed to mount." In their interest Mr. Theodore H. Mead has, in 'Horsemanship for Women' (Harpers), prepared, on the basis of Baucher's 'Méthode d'Équitation,' an attractive and instructive little book. He is an enthusiast as to the intelligence of a horse, and he will probably arouse enthusiasm in the most of his readers, who, by closely following his simple directions, may have the double pleasure of teaching both their horses and themselves accomplishments hitherto unsuspected. It is probable that the author lays too much stress, as Baucher himself did, on the line of the head being perpendicular; but the general drift is in the right direction.

An excellent memoir of the late Dr. Jonathan Mason Warren of Boston, who died in 1867, has been prepared by Howard Payson Arnold and printed for private distribution. It is a somewhat tardy account of the third distinguished physician, in direct line, of that name and place; and, perhaps because it is belated, will be more welcomed by those who loved and respected its subject, and who may have feared that no competent biography would preserve his record for posterity.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for July opens with an article on Japan by Mr. Russell Robertson, British Consul at Yokohama, and for twenty-five years a resident of the islands. It is packed closely with geographical and industrial facts, and fairly bristles with statistics. He refers especially to the enormous increase of the tea crop, the amount exported last year being 28,000,000 pounds, mostly to this country. There are 458 miles of railway in operation, and 7,000 miles of telegraph lines. The newspapers are numerous; one, the *Crier* (*Yomiuri Shimbun*), has an annual sale of 4,600,000 copies. Another British Consul, Mr. D. R. Peacock of Batum, contributes a paper on Upper Georgia, comprising the districts of Batum and Kars. He speaks despondently of the prospects of the country, the land barely sufficing to support its present small population. Referring to the ancient ruins, he says, "there is scarcely a valley or a hill where one does not discover the remains of either a fort or a church"; but there are no evidences of roads, canals, or public buildings belonging to the age of the builders of these ruins. Exception should be made, however, in favor of bridges, for there are some of stone still standing, "with one or several arches of remarkable durability as to workmanship, and of exquisite beauty in style." There is a slight sketch of Dr. Junker's travels, accompanied by a very striking portrait of the explorer.

The great work undertaken in 1855 by the late Francesco Cerroti (a remarkable example of Italian erudition and versatility), a 'Bibliografia di Roma,' is about to begin to be published in the year of his death, by Forzani & Co. of Rome. It will make four quarto volumes in double columns of admirable typography, the works enumerated being classified under six heads—the physical history of the city coming last. The titles are frequently accompanied by critical or analytical accounts of the contents. The price will be twenty lire per volume.

Among the official announcements of decorations that were to be conferred by the French Government on the national holiday, July 14, was the name of Louis-Marie-Julien Viaud, *lieutenant de vaisseau* of twenty years' service, thirteen of which were at sea. He was to receive the cross of Chevalier of the Legion of Honor, and is the author known under the name of Pierre Loti.

The new phase in the international novel is the publication in French of original works by American authors. Mr. F. Marion Crawford made a brilliant beginning with his 'Crucifix de Marzio,' in the *Nouvelle Revue*. How real a success this was, is shown by the publication immediately afterwards, in the *Journal des Débats*, of a new story by him, 'La Marchesa Carantoni,' which was begun about July 1.

—The *Atlantic* for August contains a very seasonable article upon Charles Reade, called out by the extraordinary memoir of him lately published. Its author, Mr. E. H. House, lived with Mr. Reade and Mrs. Seymour at various times between 1863 and 1873, "often for months together," and is well fitted to supply some of the corrections of which the memoir stands so sadly in need. He rightly thinks that the characterization of Reade from "the most authentic sources" is false and ridiculous. Incidentally he dwells upon Reade's fondness for Americans and upon his own Americanisms of manner, and upon all the more amiable and manly traits which were often so swallowed up in Reade's bumptiousness as to be almost incredible, so far as the public could judge. But after this attempt at a more discriminating and life-like portrait, he devotes his space to the two main points of Reade's relation to Mrs. Seymour and of his so-called plagiarisms. He confirms the statement that the attachment of Reade and Mrs. Seymour was a pure one; but his view of Reade's course when Mrs. Seymour decided to live with him, after her husband's death, differs widely from the biographer's. He thinks nothing was open to Reade but to marry her, and utterly rejects the defence offered that Reade could not

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have afforded to give up his fellowships, and that Mrs. Seymour would have refused. "She would most assuredly have married him. . . . A few friends, and no others, knew what she suffered during the first years of the irregular connection. . . . It is certain at the time he did not realize the situation, nor did he weigh it conscientiously until the opportunity—possibly the vital necessity—for reparation had long gone by. . . . In any view his action was indefensible, and the attempt to justify or applaud it as a masterly manifestation of worldly wisdom inevitably transforms itself into the severest possible accusation against the object of the mistaken eulogy." Mr. House goes on to affirm, against the biographer, that Gerard and Margaret Brandt do parallel the relations of the novelist to Mrs. Seymour, on Reade's acknowledgment "to marry"; and generally he states that "in almost everything he has to say concerning this passage of Reade's history, the biographer is singularly at fault." Upon other points, too, he challenges the truthfulness of the memoir, especially in respect to Reade's plagiarisms, and on this subject declares the biographer guilty of "sheer ignorance," and of being unacquainted with Reade's 'The Eighth Commandment.' Reade simply used French material, for the right of reproducing which he had paid, without acknowledgment, and also extracted from old authors. He saw nothing wrong in it, or, as Mr. House says, "he lacked perception of certain principles which men of letters generally agree to accept as axioms." The article, which we have merely skimmed, is altogether admirable, and essential to an understanding of Reade's very difficult character.

—The first page of vol. xxii of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' ninth edition (New York: Scribners; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), contains the beginning of a very valuable article on Siberia from the competent pen of Prince Peter Kropotkin, to whose leisure in a French prison the work owes already a considerable number of geographical sketches. As a geographer the Russian prince is as scrupulously careful as he is reckless as a writer of socialistic and revolutionary rhapsodies—such, for instance, as his 'Paroles d'un Révolté.' Even the section of the article referring to the exiles of Siberia shows the moderation of the scholar, instead of the heat of the partisan, and we are sorry that want of space prohibits our quoting here his highly interesting and, we believe, fully trustworthy statistics. On the other hand, it elicits a smile to observe how calmly the demolisher of state, religion, and society subsides into enumerating and partly describing forty-three rivers of Siberia, including such streams as "(8) the Uri . . ., (9) the Orkhon, (10) the Tchikoi (300 miles), (11) the Khilok (300), (12) the Uda (130), and (13) the Djida (200)." A little of this fondness for accuracy and minute details would have served better the authors of the more comprehensive geographico-historical articles "Spain" (upward of 70 pages) and "Sweden," the former of which manages to speak of the late Carlist war without mentioning a single commander, battlefield, stronghold, or event, and the latter to devote five long columns to the political history of the kingdom since the death of Charles XII. without naming a single actor besides the sovereigns (even Anckarstroëm, the assassin of Gustavus III., remains unnamed). More fully to characterize the proceeding first alluded to, let us add that the 'Britannica' contains no article or reference under the title of 'Carlos" or "Don Carlos," "Carlism" or "Carists," "Isabella II." or "Alfonso XII.," and that therefore the few colorless lines referred to are all that can be discovered in the Encyclopædia on the bloody struggle which shook Spain and shocked the world for four years. Let us, however, hasten to add that the collective value of the geographical and historical portions of the volume is enhanced by such contributions as Freeman's History of Sicily, Socin's "Sinai" and "Syria," Morfill's "Slavs," Prof. Keane's "Soudan," Kropotkin's "Syr-Daria," and the articles "Switzerland" (by three writers), "Sumatra," and "Syracuse." The biographical essays include lives of Adam and Sydney Smith, Smollett, Socrates, Sophocles, Spinoza, Dean Stanley, Steele, Swedenborg, and Sydney. Among the most important scientific articles are "Spectroscopy," "Steam Engine," "Stereoscope," "Strength of Materials," "Surgery," and "Surveying."

—'English History by Contemporary Writers' is a work edited by F. York Powell, whose ability as an historian is well known at Oxford. According to his announcement, the object of the series is similar to that edited by Zeller, Darsy, Luchaire, etc., in France. "It is planned not only for educational use, but for the general reader, and especially for all those to whom the original contemporary authorities are, for various reasons, difficult of access. To each well-defined period of our history is given a little volume made up of extracts from the chronicles, state papers, memoirs, and letters of the time, as also from other contemporary literature (foreign tongues being Englished), the whole arranged and chosen so as to give a living picture of the effect produced upon each generation by the political, religious, social, and intellectual movements in which it took part. . . . The chief aim of the series is to send the reader to the best original authorities, and so to bring him as close as may be to the mind and feelings of the times he is reading about." Each volume contains illustrations, a short account of the writers quoted, and various tables and summaries to facilitate reference. The first volume of the series is entitled 'Edward III. and his Wars, 1327-1360,' arranged and edited by W. J. Ashley, M. A. (London: D. Nutt, 1887, pp. 199). As the editor aims to give extracts illustrative not merely of "battles and campaigns," but likewise of "the life of the people" and "the development of the Constitution," we think that he has erred in wholly neglecting municipal and manorial history. The only town charter given (that to London on pp. 6-7) is not a typical one. But on the whole the difficult task of selection has been judiciously executed, and the narrative here presented may be read with instruction and pleasure both by the youth at school and by those familiar with the events of the period. Considering the excellence of the paper, typography, illustrations, and binding, no one can complain of the price of the book, namely, 1s. 6d.

—Three volumes have now appeared of Hachette's new series, "Les Grands Écrivains Français" (Boston: Schoenhof). To the 'Victor Cousin' of M. Jules Simon and the 'Mme. de Sévigné' of M. Gaston Boissier, with which it was begun, has been added the 'Montesquieu' of M. Albert Sorel. The occasion is perhaps a suitable one to warn the reader that he should not expect to find in these volumes biographies of the authors chosen, but rather, as the publishers announced in undertaking the series, studies upon the lives, the works, and the influence of the great writers of France. All the events in the life of Mme. de Sévigné which M. Boissier judges necessary for a full comprehension of "la femme, l'écrivain, et l'œuvre," upon the study of which he is about to enter, are given in about a dozen lines in the short preface to the volume. M. Jules Simon begins his 'Victor Cousin,' indeed, with a chapter of twenty-four pages called "La Biographie," but even in this he does not attempt to relate the life of Cousin. All the years from 1830 to 1848, for instance, the years of Cousin's highest political advancement and greatest influence, are here passed over in ten lines. But when the reader has finished either of these volumes, he must certainly lay it down with the feeling that he has been admitted into the intimate life of the great writer with whom he has been spending a few delightful hours in the most charming company, and that his knowledge of the author's position in literature, and of his influence in the world, is surprisingly enlarged and broadened. These little books are as charming externally as they are delightful to read. They are clearly and beautifully printed, in thin volumes of less than two hundred pages, with a delicate and sober cover that pleases the eye by its simplicity, and a portrait of the author which is the only thing for which the reader is not grateful. Their price is only two francs.

—M. Henri Gaidoz, the founder of the *Revue Celtique* and of *Mélusine*, has begun the publication, under the title of "Bibliotheca Mythica," of a collection which is to be composed of works upon the history of religions, mythology, traditions, and popular literature. The first volume to appear is 'La Rage et Saint-Hubert' (Paris: A. Picard). The subject has an interest of curiosity at the present time, but probably the experiments of M. Pasteur and the polemics of the friends and enemies of his methods will have a greater interest for most readers than the curious details of ancient popular superstitions and beliefs which M. Gaidoz has collected in his work. For the student of folk-lore in its various branches it will, however, have an interest apart from its special subject. M. Gaidoz is always interesting, whether he treats of the beliefs in regard to the supposed causes and cures for hydrophobia in classical or mediæval antiquity, or of the popular or religious remedies and practices of more recent times. The reader will probably follow him with the greatest interest when he examines the legend of Saint Hubert, and the various superstitious practices connected with the belief in his power to prevent or cure hydrophobia. The gradual development of the myth and its connection with the legends of other saints, and the confusion and substitution of Saint Hubert for one or another of these, is extremely curious and interesting as a study of popular beliefs and superstitions, and of the simplicity and credulity of the chroniclers or their equally surprising confidence in that of their readers. M. Gaidoz argues that in the case of Saint Hubert, and the various legends connected with the veneration for him and the belief in his miraculous healing powers which have developed during many centuries (the date of his death is given as 727), the myth has grown around the practices and as an explanation of them, and not that the legend has given rise to the practices and beliefs. M. Gaidoz relates, further, that the faith in these powers still exists, and that the ancient Church of Saint-Hubert-en-Ardenne, in the little Belgian town where the body of the Saint was finally buried in 825, and which is the centre of his influence, still has faithful believers who come to submit to the cure called *la taille*, a kind of inoculation which was practised there for centuries before that of M. Pasteur, consisting of the insertion into a little cut in the forehead of a fragment of the stole sent down from heaven by the Virgin when the Saint was consecrated Bishop of Liége in the seventh century. M. Gaidoz has himself visited the church and witnessed the operation of *la taille* performed there, and he describes it in detail. He adds that, sometimes, to make matters sure, the patients of M. Pasteur himself, after undergoing inoculation at the famous laboratory of the Rue d'Ulm, afterwards go to the Church of Saint-Hubert-en-Ardenne, and receive

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from the priest there *la taille* with all the old religious ceremonies.

SAINT-SAËNS AS A CRITIC.

Harmonie et Mélodie. Par Camille Saint-Saëns. Troisième édition. Paris: Calmann Lévy.

NOTE that the title of this work is not 'Melody and Harmony,' but 'Harmony and Melody.' This at once indicates its keynote. Though it is made up of a collection of miscellaneous essays, such as the Wagner Festival at Bayreuth (1876); the Birmingham Festivals in England; Bach and Handel; Liszt and Berlioz; Offenbach; the French Concert Societies; the Resonance of Bells, etc., what underlies all these themes is the notion, which will strike the semi-musical public with surprise, that harmony is of greater importance in music than melody, though the latter, too, is indispensable. "What the illiterate in music call, not without contempt, 'accompaniments,' or, ironically, 'science,' is *the flesh and blood of music*, is, in a word, its substance." In an historic sense, continues Saint-Saëns, melody comes before harmony, for ancient music, like modern Oriental music, has only melody and rhythm. But in an æsthetic sense harmony, which (together with orchestration) constitutes the modern element in music, stands first. But the appreciation of harmony requires a high degree of musical culture; and as in most countries the majority of people have not attained that stage, it is natural that they should place more value on melody and rhythm (especially dance rhythm), which alone they are able to appreciate.

Unfortunately, a number of these semi-musical people have been clever *writers*, and have persuaded themselves and the public that not only are these more primitive elements of music superior to harmony, but that genius is manifested only in the creation of a new melody, whereas a new harmony is a mere matter of "reflection" which any talented student may command by means of study. This absurd notion greatly exasperates M. Saint-Saëns on account of its wide prevalence; and as he may be safely pronounced at once the most erudite and the most inspired musician France has ever produced, his retort is specially weighty:

> "Beautiful melodies and beautiful harmonies are equally the product of inspiration; but who cannot see that it requires a much more powerfully organized brain to conceive beautiful harmonies? . . . Why is it that the men of genius who originate beautiful melodies are also the only ones who conceive beautiful harmonies, and that no mediocre professor and savant thought of writing, *e. g.*, the *Oro supplex et acclinis* of Mozart's 'Requiem,' which is nothing but a sequence of chords? . . . The power to create a complicated work will always be a mark of a superior organization. And in the same way the love of beautiful harmonies indicates a public which has arrived at a high degree of culture."

Both the public and the composers are demoralized by the efforts of these literary critics to prove that melody alone is art, and harmony mere "science." Were the public frankly told that their love of bare melody and simple rhythms indicates a crude musical taste, they might make an effort to learn to appreciate the subtle harmonies in superior compositions; but as it is, they remain in their ignorance and indifference, thus starving the poor composers who have the courage to write "harmonies" according to their convictions, notwithstanding the persistent advice of the literary critics that they should write only simple, unaccompanied, "inspired" melodies, and avoid "algebraic" and "chemical" harmonies. Stendhal was one of these literary critics who dabbled in music. He believed in melody for melody's sake, in the isolated "solo voice which one may enjoy at his ease like a sherbet," as Saint-Saëns sarcastically puts it. To what critical results this principle has led is shown in Stendhal's estimate of Beethoven, at which the veriest tyro in music will smile to-day: "When Beethoven and Mozart himself piled up their notes and ideas, when they searched for frequent and bizarre modulations, their erudite symphonies produced no effect; whereas, when they followed in the footsteps of Haydn, all hearts were touched."

M. Saint-Saëns might have easily quoted a hundred such judgments hurled (often by famous critics) against every composer who penetrated more deeply into the wilderness of undiscovered harmonies and modulations—the same regions where subsequently all composers gladly pitched their tents and the public followed with delight. And yet it seems that in musical history experience goes for nothing; and if to-day a composer should arise who dared to go beyond even Wagner in his modulations and discords, the Wagnerites would probably be the very first to throw stones and call him "algebraic" and "scientific." Indeed, something very like this has already happened. Franz Liszt was even bolder and more daring as a harmonist than Wagner; and it is well known that not a few thoroughbred Wagnerites underrate and even affect to despise Liszt as a composer. They admit that he is original in his harmonies and rhythms, but his melodic invention, they say, is scant, and therefore he is not a creative genius, but only a clever workman. Have we not here the same old story—the same undervaluation of the creative genius evinced by new harmonies, rhythms, and orchestration, in the conception of which Liszt was almost on a par with Wagner, although, it is true, he cannot be considered, like Wagner, one of the greatest melodists the world has ever seen, and has therefore achieved much less popularity?

One of the best chapters in M. Saint-Saëns's book is that devoted to Liszt. It includes admirable analyses of several of his symphonic poems, "so little known, and whose prospects appear to me so bright," and contains the best discussion of the vexed question of programme music which we remember to have ever seen. The French critic prophesies that ages after the memory of Liszt the pianist shall have faded, he will be admired as "the emancipator of instrumental music," the creator of the symphonic poem—a very aptly chosen title, indicating that while the orchestral apparatus of the symphony is retained (and enlarged), a poetic idea always underlies the work. The old fogies "who love above all things their little habits and the calm of their existence," violently resented the amalgamation of pure instrumental music with poetic and pictorial elements; but as long as the music itself is good, Saint-Saëns cannot see why there should be any objection to such a union. To the purely musical pleasures in this case the imagination adds others: "All the faculties of the soul are at once called into play, and in the same direction. I can see very well what art gains thereby, but cannot see what it loses." The spirit of the age demands programme music, and "the taste of the public, in France at any rate, has carried the artists in this direction"—as witness, *e. g.*, the symphonic poems of Saint-Saëns, some of which dispute the palm with Liszt's.

Between Liszt and Wagner, Saint-Saëns cannot see much in common except their method of constantly transforming a musical phrase rhythmically, so as to make it express in turn different shades of emotion. "In regard to style, and the employment of the different resources of harmony and instrumentation, they differ as widely as two contemporaneous authors belonging to the same school can differ." In Saint-Saëns's estimate of Wagner, one notes occasionally a desire to appeal to chauvinism, and a fear of the formidable rivalry of Richard of Bayreuth. Like other great French composers, Camille has had a hard and long struggle with fame, and it seems that difficulties additional were strewn in his way on account of his former enthusiastic advocacy of Wagner's genius. He was, in consequence of this, insulted as a "Wagnerite," and his enemies actually went so far as to represent him condemned, in punishment for something, *to listen to a Beethoven symphony*—him, the most ardent worshipper of classical music! This made Camille cautious, and in the preface to 'Harmonie et Mélodie' (dated 1885) he exclaims: "I admire the works of Richard Wagner profoundly, notwithstanding their *bizarrerie*. They are *supérieures* and powerful—that is enough for me. But I never was, am not now, nor will ever be of the Wagnerian religion." But now the Wagnerites accuse him of renouncing their master after profiting by his works. He retorts, however: "Not only do I not renounce him, but I pride myself on having studied him and profited thereby, as was my right and my desire." And in another place: "I have for a long time studied the works of Richard Wagner. I have found my greatest delight in these studies, and the performances of his works which I have attended have made a profound impression on me, which all the theories in the world will never make me forget or deny."

Nevertheless, he claims the right of expressing his disapproval of the [mythical] "Wagnerite" who insists that music begins and ends with Wagner; and in Wagner's works themselves he points out some details that do not please him, especially in the ethical and philosophic aspects of the plot—adding, however, with a frankness rare in a Frenchman, that he looks at these things from a French point of view, and that to a German they may appear in a different light. He says he would no longer, as he did in 1876, call the awakening of *Brünnhilde* (in "Siegfried") *un enchantement*, for the reason that the preceding scene is too long and the following one too languishing. "On the other hand, my admiration for 'Rheingold,' and for at least three-fourths of 'Tristan' and the 'Walküre,' has never ceased growing." And the sixty pages he devotes to the Nibelung Tetralogy constitute one of the most appreciative and fascinating accounts that have been given of the first Bayreuth festival. He notes as an important point that at Bayreuth the singer's voice is never drowned, thanks to the position of the invisible orchestra, and takes this opportunity to express his opinion of those who are continually denouncing Wagner's music as noisy—the same people who delight in the cymbals, drums, and cornets that make many other operas hideous: "It is certain that the least operetta makes more noise than 'Rheingold.'" As Saint-Saëns has the reputation of being the greatest living score-reader, the following is of special interest: "When one has read this score, when one has seen this marvellous jeweller's work, one has some difficulty in noting all the chasing relegated *au dernier plan* and sacrificed to the general effect. Wagner has imitated the mediæval artists, who sculptured a cathedral as they would have decorated furniture."

The great scene between *Siegmund* and *Sieglinde* in the "Walküre" causes the French critic's enthusiasm to bubble over in these words:

> "Here nothing would have prevented the composer from writing an air and a duo in the traditional style; but no air, no duo, could have, from a theatrical point of view, the value of this monologue and this dialogue-scene. Melodic flowers of the most exquisite fragrance spring up at every step, and the orchestra, like a boundless ocean, rocks the two lovers on its magic waves. Here we have the theatre of the future; neither the opera nor the simple drama will ever rouse such deep emotions in the soul. If the composer had completely succeeded in no other scene but this, it would suffice to prove that his ideal is not an impracticable dream: the cause has been

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heard. A thousand critics writing each a thousand lines a day for ten years would injure this work about as much as a child's breath would go towards overthrowing the pyramids of Egypt."

Of the fire scene in the same drama he says: "Here are harmonies which would not be approved in any conservatory; on reading the score, they seem impossible; on hearing it, they sound strange but delicious." "Siegfried" he calls the most original part of the Tetralogy. "Not only is this no longer opera, it is no longer the theatre; the spectator is transported to an entirely new world, *which music alone makes possible.*" And, finally, the "Götterdämmerung," in which the auditor "loses all sense of time as by a magic effect," and forgets to count the hours. "It is impossible to give the faintest idea of such music: it resembles no other." "The music triples the intensity of the feelings with which the characters are animated—that is all one can say to those who have not heard it." "From the elevation of the last act of 'Götterdämmerung' the whole work appears, in its almost supernatural grandeur, like the chain of the Alps seen from the summit of Mont Blanc."

No doubt these enthusiastic utterances helped to bring about the recent change of opinion in Paris regarding Wagner's music,—a change which has been so complete that Saint-Saëns himself has become alarmed, and warns his countrymen, somewhat chauvinistically, against an intellectual and artistic German invasion and conquest. But if the accounts he incidentally gives of the present state of affairs in musical France be correct, such an invasion could do no harm. Even from unmusical England France could learn much in one department—that of vocal music. He speaks in terms of the warmest admiration of the chorus singing at the Birmingham festivals. True, he adds, Lamoureaux has shown that a French chorus can be trained to attain equal excellence, but in France such performances are spasmodic and not regular institutions, for the reason that "one does not find in France a sufficient number of amateurs who love music sufficiently to attend for a long time a regular series of rehearsals." One reason he gives why choral music is not more in favor is, that the attempts have been too generally made with the music of Handel, which owes much to its religious associations and can therefore never be so popular as in "Biblical" England. In orchestral music Paris is better off, and Saint-Saëns dwells on its most curious characteristic—the division of labor. One society cultivates modern German music, another devotes some attention to French works, while the Conservatory concerts are exclusively devoted to the classical composers, rarely going beyond Beethoven. "How many (French) composers," he exclaims, "have wished to see their names in this little programme, the size of a hand, and have died without this supreme satisfaction." "'We have searched in Schumann,' one of the members of the Society told me one day, 'but we found nothing.'" Lately, however, Schumann has been admitted and warmly applauded by the conservative audience.

The rôle of France in musical history has been, according to Saint-Saëns, to develop dramatic music. Not only have her own composers always paid special attention to dramatic realism, but the foreigners who won fame in Paris—Gluck, Spontini, Rossini, Meyerbeer—had to modify their style to suit French taste, and to their advantage. Among France's minor achievements in music he mentions the magnificent edition of Gluck's operas, prepared (with his assistance) by Mlle. Pelletan, whose erudition was as great as her enthusiasm, as Saint-Saëns found when they began their joint labor of revising and conjecturing. He also pays a warm tribute to another French woman of musical endowment, Mme. Holmès, whose "Argonautes" he analyzes at length and finds much to praise in it, not its least merit being that she does not attempt to deny her sex, like most female artists, "who seem anxious above all things to make us forget that they are women, and to show an exuberant virility, without thinking that it is precisely this anxiety which betrays the woman."

LECKY'S ENGLAND IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.—II.

A History of England in the Eighteenth Century. By William Edward Hartpole Lecky. Vols. V. and VI. London: Longmans; New York: Appletons. 1887.

EVERY one who looks at Lecky's last volumes will turn to the chapters on Ireland. Every reader of these chapters will put the book down with a sense of disappointment. That this should be so is no discredit to our author. His readers are disappointed because they want something which he deliberately refuses to give them. They require clear and dogmatic opinions about the course of Irish politics. Lecky refuses to dogmatize, and provides facts from which every one must draw his own conclusions. He refuses to play the part of a rhetorician, and therefore achieves no rhetorical successes. He tries to perform in all seriousness the duties of an historian, and therefore earns the gratitude only of that small class who care much for knowledge of the past, and who care little for the direct bearing of such knowledge on the controversies of the day. Lecky, indeed, is not one of those authors who think it a duty to keep their own opinions concealed; and if you compare his earliest with his latest writings on Ireland, you will probably come to the conclusion that recent Irish history may to a certain, though to a very slight, extent have affected his views of Irish politics in the eighteenth century. That this should be so is inevitable. To interpret the past in the light of the present is as legitimate a process as to interpret the events of to-day by analyzing the causes whence they spring. What is absolutely certain is, that whether Lecky's views be or be not colored by political feeling, his one aim is to state, not his own opinions, but the facts on which these opinions rest, and that intelligent students find in our author's pages the data from which each man must form for himself his inferences as to the course of policy pursued by England towards Ireland during the last two decades of the eighteenth century. Our aim in this notice is to avoid as far as possible all contentious matter, and to point out two or three conclusions suggested by Lecky's work in which fair-minded Englishmen and Americans may, whatever be their views as to the present crisis in Irish affairs, acquiesce. Nor can any higher praise be given to our author than the acknowledgment that his pages may be consulted by Home-Rulers and Unionists alike, and that both Home-Rulers and Unionists may learn from his calm statements many truths from which they may each profit.

Three conclusions, at least, are suggested by Lecky which to an impartial critic seem hardly open to question.

First. The conduct towards Ireland pursued by the English Government between 1782 and 1793 was, whatever its intention, disastrous. To put the matter shortly, Pitt and Dundas entertained, according to Lecky, liberal, and in the main broad, views of Irish policy. Pitt's commercial ideas were very considerably in advance of his time. He had in religious matters no touch of bigotry. He was anxious to insure the material prosperity of Ireland, and was in no way averse to the policy of Catholic emancipation. The opposition on the part of George III. to concessions towards the Catholics had not, at the period with which we are concerned, made itself apparent; possibly it did not even exist. The views, however, of Pitt on all measures connected with the Catholics were in direct opposition to the opinions of the Irish Administration. Fitzgibbon was vehemently opposed to concessions which either involved or tended towards emancipation. Pitt's policy was thwarted by the Irish leaders who were most loyal to the English connection. The Castle, neither for the first nor the last time, triumphed, or rather achieved a kind of half triumph which was possibly in the long run of worse omen for England and for Ireland than would have been a complete victory of the party of reaction. The net result of the attitude adopted by the English Government, by the Castle, and by the Irish Opposition, was that the Catholics obtained the Parliamentary suffrage, but the Irish Parliament was not reformed; the Catholics were not given the full rights of citizens, and the very imperfect political arrangement known as Grattan's Constitution was not completed or revised so as to place the relations between England and Ireland on a durable basis. If it were the function of an historian—which happily it is not—to distribute praise and blame among the actors in the drama of history, his verdict might be that all parties were pretty nearly equally to blame. A more just verdict, however, is that the men on whom fate imposed the necessity of solving most difficult problems, acted in a way which, considering the state of their knowledge and feelings, was too natural to be blameworthy; and that they one and all can plead the excuse that the position with which they had to deal was one of intolerable, and it may be insuperable, difficulty.

Second. Grattan's Constitution was a piece of incomplete machinery which, as every one can now see, was all but unworkable. Under it Ireland was independent, but was not self-governed:

> "There was, properly speaking, no Ministry in Ireland responsible to the Irish Parliament. The position of Irish Ministers was essentially different from the position of their colleagues in England. Ministerial power was mainly in the hands of the Lord-Lieutenant and of his Chief Secretary, and this latter functionary led the House of Commons, introduced for the most part Government business, and filled in Ireland a position at least as important as that of the Prime-Minister in England. But the Lord-Lieutenant and the Chief Secretary were not politicians who had risen to prominence and leadership in the Irish Parliament. They were Englishmen, strangers to Ireland, appointed and instructed by English Ministers, and changed with each succeeding administration. The Irish Government was thus completely subordinated to the play of party government in England. An Irish administration which commanded the full confidence of the Irish Parliament, might at any moment be overthrown by a vote of the English Parliament on some purely Irish question."

Nor does Lecky's language represent the full extent of the constitutional difficulty. A ministry might, under the conditions of the Irish representation, command the confidence of the Irish Parliament, and yet not represent the opinion of even Protestant Ireland. And a government which represented Protestant opinion might grossly misrepresent the feeling of Irish Catholics. Hence arose the immediate need both for Parliamentary reform and for Catholic emancipation. But on neither of these points were the popular leaders agreed. Flood and Charlemont wished to employ the Volunteers for the purpose of forcing reform upon the Protestants. Neither Flood nor Charlemont was willing to emancipate the Catholics. Grattan dreaded the attempt to carry out a revolution by moral pressure supported in the last resort by armed force. He hoped that Parliament would reform itself, and wished to confer on Catholics all the rights of citizens. No one can blame patriots for hesitat-

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ing between two equally dangerous policies. But no one, on the other hand, can blame the English Government for not taking the lead in carrying out a possibly beneficial revolution. If Parliament had been reformed, and the Catholics had been emancipated, under the influence of the English Ministry, the Parliamentary independence of Ireland, which was the corner-stone of Grattan's Constitution, would have been set at naught as truly as it was by passing the Act of Union; and during the period with which Lecky's last volume deals, every Protestant in Ireland was morbidly sensitive as to anything which even in name threatened the independence acquired in 1782. A Protestant minority had in that year achieved the independence of their country. It was hardly to be expected that a body animated by the sense of recent triumph would willingly sacrifice their own political supremacy. Neither the Emancipation Act of 1829 nor the Reform Bill of 1832 was carried by anything short of threatened revolution; and the annals of Ireland, as narrated by an impartial historian such as Lecky, give small reason to suppose that reforms which, even in England, were carried by violence, could, towards the end of the last century, have been carried out by pacific means in Ireland. The suggestion, indeed, which Lecky appears inclined to make, that Pitt, by acting cordially with Grattan, might have given Ireland a constitution better than that which passes by the name of Grattan, and far preferable to union with England unaccompanied by Catholic emancipation, may in one sense be sound. But it is of little worth. It assumes that Pitt was able to act in a way inconsistent with his own character and with his own position. Behind Pitt, be it remembered, stood George III.; behind George III. stood the people of Great Britain; and those who think that the personal bigotry of the King was the only hindrance to Catholic emancipation, forget the lesson of the Gordon riots. Turn the matter which way he will, the impartial observer is still compelled to come back to the conclusion that at the most critical period in Irish history no leader, either in England or Ireland, rose to the height of the occasion, and that the occasion, great as may seem its opportunities, possibly presented nothing to statesmanship but a problem to which there existed no satisfactory solution.

Third. Lecky brings out with a clearness which is very characteristic of his skill in treating of all matters connected with the growth of opinion, that towards the end of the last century thinkers no less than politicians, both in England and in Ireland, suffered from two sources of error from which their modern critics are free. They, many of them, believed that Roman Catholicism was a dying creed, and that enlightened men of all religious persuasions were gradually adopting one and the same theological tone; they looked for the reign of rational piety. They knew nothing, again, of revolutionary fanaticism; in other words, they had forgotten the lessons of the Reformation, they had not read the lessons of the French Revolution. In these matters we are all of us wiser than our grandfathers. We know that religious enthusiasm or bigotry is a force which is certainly not yet spent; we know that political fanaticism may rival theological bigotry both in its violence and in its cruelty. The ignorance of the generation who witnessed the attempt to combine the independence of Ireland with friendly relations towards Great Britain, led statesmen of high ambition and of great capacity to delay reform till the outbreak of the French Revolution made all reform an impossibility. It is characteristic of the calamitous course of Irish history that the religious movement which brought freedom and toleration to England, brought nothing but oppression and intolerance to Ireland, while the revolutionary storm which, with all its terrors, cleared the atmosphere of continental Europe, destroyed all hopes of basing Irish independence on the equality and the freedom of Irishmen.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Cœruleans. By H. S. Cunningham. Macmillan & Co.

A Lad's Love. By Arlo Bates. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

Daniele Cortis. By A. Fogazzaro. Translated from the Italian by Mrs. I. R. Tilton. Henry Holt & Co.

The Lilies of Florence. By George Sand. Translated from the French by Lew Vanderpoole. John W. Lovell Company.

Sebastopol. By Count Leo Tolstoi. Translated from the French by Frank D. Millet. Harper & Brothers.

Ivan Ilyitch, and Other Stories. By Count Lyof N. Tolstoi. Translated from the Russian by Nathan Haskell Dole. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

A THOROUGH acquaintance with official life in India, and with the existing problems of British rule in that country, added to a lively apprehension of an inevitable catastrophe in the near future to be brought about by the careless deeds of ignorant and presumptuous rulers, has inspired the author of 'The Cœruleans' with the theme for a clever picture of life in the East. Indian residents will probably not have much difficulty in putting real names to the vigorously sketched portraits of the inhabitants of Cœrulea, since every one of them is something more than a mere character for a novel. They are distinctly types. In spite of a trenchant style and plenty of humor, which is kept well in hand, the author does not seem wholly at ease, and in the beginning plans for a much larger work than is eventually presented. The gain in compactness is rather more than balanced by the sense of disappointment produced in the reader's mind at the manner in which all the characters finally elude his grasp after the preparation of remarkably solid foundations. Nevertheless, the book is extremely good, and it contains the promise of large possibilities for the writer in the future.

Of a much lighter calibre is Mr. Arlo Bates's 'A Lad's Love,' yet thoroughly suited to the requirements of a "summer book," to be perused by that product of American civilization known as the "summer girl." The author's well-known delicacy of touch could not be applied to a more appropriate subject than these seaside products, flirtation and love; and his picture (with the unimportant exception of the scenery, which is very felicitously handled) might apply to any resort on the Atlantic coast as well as to Campobello. The book should be scrupulously kept out of the hands of foreigners, since they might misunderstand the friendly relations existing between seventeen-year-old Phœbe and her beautiful and coquettish mother of five-and-thirty, who is more of a child than the daughter in the matter of feminine wiles, and hold it up to the universe as another frightful example of the ways of "young America."

A foreign political novel is, as a rule, rather hard reading to the average public in this country, unless, as in the stories of Lord Beaconsfield and of Anthony Trollope, the politics belong to a land of whose methods and problems a general, albeit superficial, knowledge is floating in the air, and also when the narrative is practically complete in itself, apart from the politics. The first of these conditions is not fulfilled by Fogazzaro's novel, 'Daniele Cortis,' which Mrs. Tilton has admirably translated from the Italian. The problem which here presented itself was whether the whole of the political part should be retained and the interest of the general reader, unacquainted with popular issues in Italy, should be diverted and wearied, or whether the politics should, to some extent, be sacrificed to the story. The translator has wisely chosen the latter course, and has very judiciously abridged what may be called the technical discussions. This renders the hero rather a shadowy figure, when regarded in the light of an ambitious statesman and a man of action, and it also produces a certain abruptness in the transitions of time and place, which would otherwise be rounded off by the record of his electioneering tactics. With that exception—an exception for which the reader will feel almost grateful after a perusal of what remains of the technical portion—the story is in every way excellent. It gives us a chapter in the life of a young Italian baroness, who is an ideally sweet but not weak character, and who has married in haste at an early age, to escape from the unpleasant general tone of her mother's house, which offends her taste and her moral sense. She finds, too late, that she has wedded a man in every way objectionable, and that her love is really given to her cousin, Daniele Cortis. Daniele, a clever and ambitious man of fine temper and principle, who is harassed with a discreditable mother, as well as with his hopeless passion for the Baroness, is capitally portrayed, though, in common with all the other characters in the book, he is left rather in the state of a sketch for a composition on a far larger scale. The story is well worked up to a dramatic crisis, which leaves the noble cousins, parted for ever, apparently by their own action, in as wretched a condition of mind as the most hard-hearted reader could desire.

The sixteen short stories which are published in translation from the MSS. left by the late George Sand, under the title of 'The Lilies of Florence,' hardly meet the expectations of the admirers of that great writer. Published anonymously, they would not evoke more than a passing comment in commendation of their smooth execution, and they would disappear from sight amid the host of excellent stories which are daily produced, skimmed, and tossed aside. The first tale, in particular, is fashioned on so antiquated a model that it positively startles the reader into a sudden consciousness of the change in literary fashions since the days when a lay figure of the romantic form was kept in every writer's skeleton-cupboard, and dressed up afresh for each requirement. The anatomy of this sort of skeleton becomes more visible through any drapery that may be contrived for it with every succeeding year. This pretty story may afford a temporary interest to people who are fond of seeing the minds of great writers in every phase, when experimenting as well as when at their best. It does not necessarily constitute a condemnation of these stories to say that the author's fame will not be increased by them. They would appear to better advantage singly, in periodical literature, where the translator—who seems to have done his work thoroughly well—states that there is a great demand for them.

Count Tolstoi's numerous admirers, who have already had a taste of his power in depicting all that is connected with war, will welcome the excellent translation from the French of his celebrated sketches of the siege of Sebastopol. His method in these earlier studies of the horrors of war is the same as in his battle scenes in 'War and Peace,' though less intricate and less developed in detail than in the later work. The various incidents of the siege which he selects in order to present it in its different aspects, though somewhat fragmentary in themselves, form a graphic whole which can never be forgotten by

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any one who has once read it, and it must be read to be appreciated, since quotations are obviously impossible, and no outline of the plotless sheaf of impressions, apparently jotted down almost at random, can be given.

Even more interesting than this work of the great Russian writer's youth, from many points of view, is his latest contribution to popular and polite literature combined, which is presented to us in the translation from the Russian of the greater portion of the twelfth volume of his works, under the title of 'Ivan Ilyitch, and Other Stories.' The first story is, more accurately speaking, a psychological study of the illness and death of a typical Russian official, neither better nor worse than his fellows. This is the keynote to the whole study. Ivan Ilyitch was an average man, and was, if not precisely "conscious of his own rectitude" in the conceited sense of that phrase, yet conscious at least, like the publican, that he was not as bad as many others. To this admirably chosen starting-point, Count Tolstoi conducts us by a rapid yet vivid outline of Ivan Ilyitch's official career and his rather disappointing experience of married life. Just as success is beginning to crown his efforts to rise in the service, he injures himself by a fall while arranging his new abode in a manner to satisfy his querulous wife and his own aspirations for elegance. His injury develops slowly into a mysterious but incurable disease, and the analysis of his state of mind as he gradually loses hope, includes some of the subtlest work which the author has ever produced. Thenceforth, the undercurrent of "the average man" comes to the surface and permeates every thought of the sufferer. "I have done no special evil in my life: why should this happen to *me?*"—Ivan Ilyitch asks himself incessantly; and most readers will recognize the mood which the author has chosen to follow to its very end. This is, probably, the first time that a death-bed has been dissected from this particular point of view. Tortured by mental and bodily suffering, by the real or apparent neglect of his family, who are engaged in amusing themselves, and finding his only comfort in the presence of the healthy and cheerful young peasant who waits upon him, Ivan Ilyitch approaches the hour of death. Very nearly at the last moment he suddenly sees that his whole life has been conducted on a false basis, and, having acknowledged this, he dies, not cheerfully, not with resignation, but yet not in torment.

It is at this point that Count Tolstoi may be said to have shrunk from the responsibility which he has undertaken, in enunciating the theory that such a wholesale confession of mistake is all that is required to relieve pangs of the nature which he had previously depicted in such a forcible manner. It is possible that we are credited by the writer with a knowledge of his radical views on the question as to what is the proper mode of life, and that he means us to read between the lines at this point, and to supply the explanation for his abrupt conclusion by interpolating his theories of manual labor as opposed to all official and other service. But although this would furnish a more satisfactory ending, the difficulty about such a solution lies in the fact that the dying man is not allowed the time to develop a new theory of life to take the place of the rule by which he has lived wrongly. Though the morbid tone of this sketch will probably repel many readers, the fine touches of observation and the artistic workmanship throughout—with possibly the exception above noted—will atone for this in the opinion of readers at large.

With regard to the tales for the people which constitute the remainder of the volume, a wide range of opinion will probably prevail. While doing full justice to the ingenuity with which each separate tale is constructed to teach its own moral, and to the author's devotion to the task of instructing the peasants, it must be admitted that these stories would probably have escaped general notice had not the Count's reputation in a wholly different field of literature bestowed on them what must, in truth, be designated as a factitious value. Whether they fulfil the author's expectations may also properly be doubted, since a Russian publication has just stated that, while enthusiastic admirers declare that the penny edition of a certain one of them should sell by tens of thousands, the fact remains that great piles of it lay unsold in the shops. This refers, too, to the most popular and the most graceful of all, which is not included in this volume of translations, but which can be had separately, 'What People Live By.' Moreover, taken thus as a whole, they contradict each other in their morals to some extent—a fact which the cultivated reader may be permitted to observe, if it is not allowed to the peasants for whom they were written. The reader of the higher class may, perhaps, also be permitted to suggest that the higher classes need lessons as well as the lower, and that while the good effects of such a work as 'Anna Karénina' are probably a hundred-fold those of these tales, it is a pity that a man who can write a novel of that calibre should, in some measure at least, waste his gifts in experiments with the rough language of the people.

The translator has improved in this volume over his former work in that line, though he is still guilty of inaccuracies; such, for instance, as rendering the Eve of the Nativity of the Virgin (which falls on September 7-19) by "Christmas Eve." "The Three Mendicants," also, would be better as "hermits," in view of the fact that there are no so-called mendicant orders in Russia, and that the three men in question lived on a desert island where begging would have been a physical impossibility. Mr. Dole has not wholly mastered various idiomatic expressions, and the result is occasionally confusing. "Well—it will—let Vanka look out for me," for example, should read, ". . . enough of this" (*da budet*, etc.); and "You ought to be living and enjoying life, and 'climb the mountain,' should read, ". . . and rising in the world" (*v goru idti*). Mr. Dole still persists in rendering his translations hard to read by retaining as many Russian words as he possibly can—all of them unnecessary, it may be remarked, with the exception, perhaps, of "prokuror" and "vodka." There is no valid reason why *steward, boy, peasant, woman*, and so on, should be left in Russian to worry the reader, since the latter is, presumably, reading for pleasure, and not learning the language. If he could hear the inexpressibly ludicrous effect produced by a person not acquainted with Russian persistently pronouncing "babas" (women) *babies*, he would perhaps be converted from the error of his ways. In this connection, it may be remarked that, in adopting this system of retaining the Russian word, he falls into a fault which makes a Russian stare with amazement. He has to choose between giving the Russian plural, which would still further confuse the lay mind, and putting an English plural to a Russian singular. He selects the latter horn of the dilemma. Now and then he renders the rough original rougher by omitting the subject of the verb unnecessarily. On the whole, however, a very good idea of the style of the original can be gained. A comical feature of these stories lies in the way in which the author has revised them for a place in his works. For instance, in the tale called, 'Does a Man Need Much Land?' Count Tolstoi seems to have discovered that, in his penny edition for the peasants, he had been teaching the unhallowed doctrine that money is a desirable thing. The land is so fertile on the spot on the Volga, says the peasant, that "one muzhik was perfectly poor—came with his hands alone—and now he has six horses and three cows." In the penny edition the man cleared five thousand rubles! As the work of a remarkable man, this volume is of the greatest interest, and the story of 'Ivan the Fool' is not only particularly so, but amusing as well.

Australian Defences and New Guinea. Compiled from the papers of the late Sir Peter Scratchley. By C. K. Cooke. With an introductory memoir. Macmillan & Co. 1887. Pp. xii, 413. Maps, portrait, 8vo.

Pioneering in New Guinea. By James Chalmers. With a map and illustrations. London: Religious Tract Society. 1887. Pp. xii, 343, 8vo.

Gen. Scratchley was sent to Australia for the first time in 1860 to superintend the erection of defences in Victoria, in which duty he was actively employed over three years. In 1876 he returned as adviser to the different Australian governments as to the best methods of defending the colonies from foreign attacks. During the seven years in which he filled this position, he examined carefully all the important harbors on the Australian and New Zealand coasts, and at the same time diligently strove to increase the efficiency of the local forces. From his various minutes, reports, and plans, Mr. Kinloch Cooke has been able to give in a clear and concise form Sir Peter Scratchley's views, both upon the general subject of defence and upon the particular methods to be adopted in each colony. In these there will be found much that is applicable, not to Australia alone, but to any country having an extended seaboard to defend. It is to be noted that though Gen. Scratchley shows in every case the best possible means of defence, provided sufficient men and money were always available, he is careful to advise the adoption only of such measures as the financial conditions of the different colonies will warrant. While he seems to have considered every possible contingency connected with the attack by a foreign fleet, he entirely overlooks the possibility that this may be delivered with far greater suddenness and unexpectedness than formerly, through the decrease of the space required for the motive power. He argues constantly on the supposition that a hostile fleet or a swift cruiser, even from a European or American port, would need to coal before making an effective descent on the Australian coast. Sir Peter's suggestions in reference to recruiting the police from the militia, thereby increasing the efficiency of both forces and securing a trained reserve capable of active service in time of war, deserve particular attention.

In 1884 he was appointed Commissioner for New Guinea, and reached Port Moresby at the end of August the next year. The fall was spent in cruising along the coast, organizing the Government, and making the acquaintance of the various chiefs. He worked too hard, however, and, having contracted a jungle fever during a short excursion into the interior, died at sea December 2, 1885. Even in this short time he made a deep impression upon the missionaries and natives as a man who was "a true and loyal friend, and one in whose hands native interests were safe." In addition to a diary which Sir Peter kept during this time, Mr. Cooke gives a general account of English New Guinea, its condition and prospects. The history of the negotiations between Germany and the Foreign Office in reference to the annexation of the northern coast by the former Power is related at some length, and the dilatoriness and indecision of the latter severely condemned. While England took pos-

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session of that part of the island adjacent to Australia simply to prevent any other Power from doing so, it is not impossible that it will in time prove a valuable colony. The soil is very fertile, and apparently especially adapted to the cultivation of spices. The natives, though in many respects savages of the lowest grade, are easily taught, and also show remarkable capacity for "mercantile ventures." From a single district, whose principal industry is the manufacture of pots, there goes annually a fleet of canoes manned by about 600 men, who "convey westwards, for about 200 miles, the large number of 30,000 pots, and bring back about 150 tons of sago." These pots are "entirely made by women. No machinery or rudimentary potter's wheel has come into use, but the women judge the size of the pots so accurately, and fashion them so deftly, that, though rude, they are admirably shaped." When finished, the trade-mark of the family is cut with a sharp shell, and during the process of firing they are colored with tannin, extracted from mangrove bark. Several excellent maps add to the value of this volume, but we regret the lack of an index.

Eastern New Guinea does not appear to be a very attractive place for travellers. A pestilential mangrove swamp lines the greater part of the coast, in which mosquitoes are so numerous that, to use a native's words, "their song in the night is loud as Rouna [a large waterfall]." The interior, so far as it has been explored, consists of a succession of steep mountain ranges, with many lofty peaks, culminating in Mt. Owen Stanley, 13,205 feet high, and clothed with an almost impenetrable jungle, in which the too adventurous explorer runs great risk of perishing from hunger. The natives are comparatively few in number. They suffer greatly from their continual tribal wars, as well as from infectious diseases, drought, and famine. Mission work among them has been very successful, not so much in the number of converts made as in the general elevation of the people, and the cultivation of peaceful relations between the different tribes. This success implies a sensible way of prosecuting the work. Native Polynesian Christians, after pursuing a course of instruction, are posted in the different villages as teachers, the work of the two or three English missionaries being chiefly that of supervision. In this manner a large part of the tribes inhabiting the southern coast of the British Protectorate has been reached by what has proved to be in reality a "Gospel of Peace."

It was while placing new teachers or preparing the way for their reception that the Rev. James Chalmers made the most of the journeys described in his book. He thus gained not only an intimate knowledge of the coast and the country adjacent, but also an extraordinary influence over the natives far and wide, so that, says a companion of the late Sir Peter Scratchley, "Strangers are asked if they know 'Tamate,' and, if so, are treated with kindness." He owes this influence partly to his powerful frame—the natives have a great admiration for large men, a fact not overlooked in the selection of teachers—but chiefly to his perfect fearlessness, his entire trust in them, and a winning kindliness of manner which the simple natives cannot resist, joined to a determination and independence of character which commands their respect. Though he writes without any literary grace of style, and his sketches are somewhat fragmentary and disconnected, thus making his book rather hard reading, yet one cannot go far in it without having a sincere respect for the author, and a hearty interest in the people among whom he has labored since 1878. His most entertaining chapter is that giving an account of one of the native "trading voyages," for the purpose of disposing of the pottery made by the women in the manner described above. While the women are at work, the men are equally busy in building the "lakatois" in which the pottery is to be transported to the western tribes. "Our lakatoi," says Mr. Chalmers, who was the first white man to accompany the natives on these voyages, "consisted of four large canoes lashed together, with good bulwarks made of leaves strongly bound together with mangrove saplings. We had two masts of mangrove, stepped on top of the canoes with stays and backstays of rattan cane. Our sails were made of mats, and shaped like the large crab-claw. Fore and aft were good-sized houses, made of wood, and packed full of pottery. Running right round was a platform two and a half feet wide. The canoes were full of pottery, and in the centre, between the masts, was a large crate also full." The crew consisted of thirty-four men and boys. After a six-days' rather perilous sail, the fleet of lakatois reached their place of destination, a noted cannibal tribe, living about two hundred miles west of Port Moresby. The method of selling the pottery (which is used chiefly in cooking, the natives knowing nothing of an oven) is as follows. Each man's stock, consisting in one case of seventy pieces, "is arranged on the beach, and into each two small pieces of wood are put, and, when finished, the owner returns along the row, takes one piece out, and the purchaser follows, taking the other. Both parties tie the tokens carefully up and put them away in a safe place; then the purchaser's family and friends come and carry away the pottery. When the time arrives for the lakatoi to return, the purchaser and all his friends set to work and get the sago required, one bundle of sago for each piece of wood. When the sago is finished, he sends for the Motuan, who enters the sago-house with his small parcel, counts the tokens and then counts the sago, and if all is right, he then carries them on board; if one or more bundles is short, there is a lively disturbance." Other chapters contain accounts of the manner in which the British Protectorate was proclaimed, Mr. Chalmers accompanying the naval officers in order to explain to the natives the meaning of the ceremonies connected with the raising of the flag. There is also a valuable series of answers by representatives of two of the principal tribes to questions concerning their habits, customs, and beliefs. The book is attractive in its appearance, having well-executed illustrations, an excellent map, and a good index.

Imaginary Portraits. By Walter Pater. Macmillan & Co. 1887.

THE four studies that make up this volume portray rather the times in which the scene of them is laid than the individuals who figure in them. In fact, they present certain historical phases of culture, moods of the human spirit. That subtle appreciation and the infinite number of small touches in the rendering of what he sees, which lie at the heart of Mr. Pater's literary individuality and give to his style its extraordinary distinction, lift the book out of the range of the common, and set it apart as unique with his other work, to the refined thoughtfulness of which we have heretofore endeavored to do some justice. But it does not in all respects reach the level of that stronger and richer, though not more elaborated, work; and the four studies, as between themselves, have very different degrees of success. One of them deals with the French taste of the early eighteenth century and the personal relation of Antony Watteau to it; a second sets forth the Bacchic and grotesque and physically morbid aspects of mediævalism at the first gleam of the Renaissance in a kind of moral fable of one Denys L'Auxerrois—a literary attempt at a new Donatello, and not so far below Hawthorne's as to fall into the incredible or the absurd; the third brings together in the person and circumstances of Sebastian Van Storck the curious contrast developed in the Low Countries of Spinozism with Dutch burgomasters' wives, the genre painters, and the practical struggle inch by inch for the ground to stand on; the fourth pictures in Duke Carl of Rosenmold a predecessor of Goethe in the passion for an illumination of Germany, much—to compare great things with small—as Browning found in Sordello a predecessor of Dante. These four points in the history of culture are all interesting, with fine backgrounds of color and of thought, and such as one would call "subjects made to his hand," were it not that Pater in a sense always creates his subject.

The first of these is so much the most highly finished and clearly made out as to leave the others far behind. It is in the main a criticism on Antony Watteau, told by means of extracts from the journal of a woman who knew and loved him from the opening of his genius, and in whose family he received his encouragement; but it is directly a criticism of Watteau's temperament rather than his works, and indirectly a view of the whole real meaning of that age as seen through art. It is all very simple, however. Only two lights are thrown on the painter—one, which shows him ironically indifferent to the luminous gayety in depicting which he was so easily master; the other, which reveals the impatient jealousy of genius in the presence of that talent which by industry comes so nigh to the same perfection. There is praise enough of his works—excellent, discriminating, definite praise. The sum of his doings Pater gives apparently in this extract:

"Himself really of the old time—that serious old time which is passing away, the impress of which he carries on his physiognomy—he dignifies by what in him is neither more nor less than a profound melancholy, the essential insignificance of what he *wills* to touch in all that; transforming its mere pettiness into grace. It looks certainly very graceful, fresh, animated, 'piquant,' as they love to say—yes! and withal, I repeat, perfectly pure, and may well congratulate itself on the loan of a fallacious grace not its own. For, in truth, Antony Watteau is still the mason's boy, and deals with that world under a fascination. . . . He will never overcome his early training; and these light things will possess for him always a kind of worth, as characterizing that impossible or forbidden world which the mason's boy saw through the closed gateways of the enchanted garden. Those trifling and petty graces, the *insignia* to him of that nobler world of aspiration and idea, even now that he is aware, as I conceive, of their true littleness, bring back to him, by the power of association, all the old magical exhilaration of his dream—his dream of a better world than the real one. There is the formula, as I apprehend, of his success—of his extraordinary hold on things so alien from himself. . . . Yes, the world profits by such reflection of its poor coarse self in one who renders all its caprices from the height of a Corneille."

Perhaps it is too much to ask that criticism so subtle as this should be accepted; it is almost too perfectly plausible. But it is enough if it be understood. One cannot condense Pater's work, however, or give any impression of its structural completeness, of its endless charm of detail, by bringing the traditional brick in the shape of a paragraph. Of the minor touches, nevertheless, let us spare space to mention the beautiful old age of Monseigneur le Prince de Cambrai, seen by a sidelight of the narrative, the almost dramatic vividness of the chance introduction of the story of 'Manon Lescaut,' then a new book, the imaginative pathos of the incident of the bird lost among the cathedral arches where it will beat its life out helplessly, and the glimpse of the Revolution to come which he affords us when, looking on some of Watteau's designs, the writer says:

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"Only as I gaze upon those windless afternoons I find myself always saying to myself involuntarily, 'The evening will be a wet one.' The storm is always brooding through the massy splendor of the trees, above those sun-dried glades or lawns where delicate children may be trusted thinly clad; and the secular trees themselves will hardly outlast another generation."

None of the remaining three studies approach measurably near this of Watteau either in power or subtlety or purity. The new Donatello, as we named him above, or Denys L'Auxerrois, as Pater calls him, is a child of nature whose being gradually passes under the cloud of humanity, whose achievement is the building of the first organ, and whose death is a kind of martyrdom, a being torn limb from limb by the populace, who have perceived and come to fear and hate the daimonic power in his genius. The legend is perhaps too obviously managed, and too much is crowded into it for a single impersonation. The opening landscape is possibly the best of it.

So, in the next study (the contrast of the Low Dutch life with Spinozism in Sebastian Van Storck, who "abnegates" the fat and homely comforts, and endeavors to put himself in the way of absorption into the absolute), the landscape is the one thing successfully treated — "the standing force of pathos" existing in the very conditions of life there where man is "like a navigator when the sea was risen, like a shipwrecked mariner when it was retired." And that this was true so long ago as Pliny's time seems to cast a deeper misery upon the land. In the personal part of the story and in the thought-history of it, the author is out of his own field. The heavy grossness of the circumstances and the incongruousness of the intellectual parts with the scene are too difficult matters for his hand—in the mass at least, for there are felicities in the detail.

In the last study, likewise, one finds lack of that substance in the midst of picturesqueness to which Pater has accustomed us, and the picturesqueness itself is of a somewhat rubbishy kind. The time was rubbishy, possibly the author would say in comment on the criticism; and it is of interest to observe that he sets up a defence for those poor people who go into raptures and enthusiasms over third-rate things: "The higher informing capacity, if it exist within, will mould an unpromising matter to itself; will realize itself by selection and the preference of the better in what is bad or indifferent, asserting its prerogative under the most unlikely conditions." Carl, he says, made "a really heroic effort of mind at a disadvantage," and put into his enthusiasm for Louis XIV. and the æsthetic achievements of that age what young France had felt for Francis I. and Da Vinci. This is of great comfort to the æsthetic class that has no access to the best and greatest, yet must feel strongly. To us, unfortunately, the essay in which it occurs seems to belong to the grade of Louis XIV. rather than of Francis I., and too clearly within hailing distance of Pater's feminine disciple, Vernon Lee. When a man's best is as good as Pater's, *noblesse oblige*—he must keep to it.

Margaret of Angoulême, Queen of Navarre. By A. Mary F. Robinson. [Famous Women.] Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1887. 12mo, pp. 316.

MARGARET of Angoulême well deserves a place in the list of "famous women," and she is fortunate in having as her biographer so accomplished a scholar and so agreeable a writer as Miss Robinson. This fascinating book gives a picture of a phase of the Reformation period which is little known, but is full of instruction. Margaret, sister of Francis I. and grandmother of Henry IV., was a potent influence in her day; from her Henry IV. inherited his Protestantism, and to her is largely due the preservation of whatever germs of the reformed religion survived in France. "Without her," says Miss Robinson (p. 315), "the noblest part of the Renaissance in France must have perished at the Inquisition stakes. She made learning possible, and secured for a time a relative freedom of thought. She taught respect for life in an age which only respected opinions."

Perhaps it could hardly be expected that a book of this character should pay much attention to historical geography and dynastic relations. But we have a right to expect careful and accurate statements, which, at any rate, shall not convey false impressions. Navarre, of which Margaret was Queen, was only an insignificant fragment of the mediæval kingdom of that name, and only an insignificant fragment of the dominions of the house of Albret. When, then, we are told (p. 120) of the marriage of Margaret to the young King of Navarre, and the kingdom to which he took his bride, and then read of "the capital of Nérac" and afterwards of "Pau, the southern capital," surely we may suppose that these were the capitals of this kingdom. No such thing: they were the capitals of his principal feudal dominions—Nérac of Albret, Pau of Béarn—provinces which had been annexed to Navarre by the marriage of their lord to its heiress, just as afterwards this bundle of territories was annexed to Bourbon by the marriage of Jeanne d'Albret to Antony of Bourbon. This is not a mere matter of names. The forces with which Henry of Navarre contended against the League were not those of his petty kingdom, but of the extensive French provinces, integral parts of France, of which he was the feudal lord.

The Autobiography of Edward, Lord Herbert of Cherbury. With Introduction, Notes, Appendices, and a continuation of the life. By Sidney L. Lee, B.A., Balliol College, Oxford. Scribner & Welford. 8vo, pp. lxiv and 369.

THE Life of Lord Herbert of Cherbury—"the first of our autobiographers," as he has been called—is so famous and important a work as to be well worthy of the elegant form in which it appears in this edition. In paper and typography it leaves nothing to be desired; the notes are useful and scholarly; while the introduction, continuation, and appendices give all the additional information which the reader is likely to need. Of direct historical information this book contains very little, being chiefly devoted to the personal and family affairs of the writer. We do not even find anything touching his perhaps more famous brother, George Herbert, except in the general account of the family. But as a picture of life in the court of James I., and the contemporary court of Louis XIII., the book possesses the highest value, being straightforward and candid, full of curious detail, and written in a graphic, entertaining style. In brief touches we have placed before us Maurice, Prince of Orange, the Duke of Luynes, the Duke of Buckingham, the Marquis Spinola, etc., but these distinguished men are not described or characterized with any minuteness. *Historical* interest—that is, as touching famous personages and events—the book, as we have said, possesses comparatively little. But Lord Herbert of Cherbury—himself a distinguished man, the first of the English deists—is made a very real personage to us, and in his life we have the life of a nobleman of his time. Not of an average nobleman, for he was as much above the average in uprightness and general purity of character as in ability; but his life was that of his time. We should be afraid to say how many duels are recorded of him in these pages, and certainly many of them were upon very slender occasions.

The etched portraits are, two of the author (one when reposing after a duel), one of Queen Anne of Denmark, and one of the Count of Gondomar. Of this sumptuous edition only one thousand copies were printed—four hundred of them for the American market.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barbey d'Aurevilly, J. Les Philosophes et les Écrivains religieux. Paris: Frinzine; Boston: Schoenhof.
Goldsmith, Oliver. Selections from his Works. Boston: Chautauqua Press. 75 cents.
Hazlitt, W. C. Gleanings in Old Garden Literature. George J. Coombes. $1.25.
Home Sanitation: A Manual for Housekeepers. Ticknor & Co.
Hugo, V. Things Seen. Harper & Brothers.
Huntington, F. St. Paul's Problem and its Solution. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
James, Henry. Tales of Three Cities. 5th ed. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Jameson, Judge J. A. Treatise on Constitutional Conventions. 4th ed. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. $5.
Karr, H. W. S. Shores and Alps of Alaska. London: Sampson Low; Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $3.50.
Kitchin, D. B. Introduction to the Study of Provençal. London: Williams & Norgate.
Larousse. Grand dictionnaire universelle du XIXe siècle. 2e Supplément, fasc. 4, 5. Boston: Schoenhof.
Loti, Pierre. Propos d'exil. Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof.
Lubbock, Sir J. The Pleasures of Life. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Morgan, T. J. Educational Mosaics. Boston: Silver, Rogers & Co.
Murphy's Consolidated Business Directory for New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. John L. Murphy Publishing Co.
Nason, H. B. Biographical Record of the Officers and Graduates of the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute. 1824–1886. Troy, N. Y.: Wm. H. Young.
Rosny, J. H. Le Bilatéral, Mœurs révolutionnaires parisiennes. Paris: A. Savine; Boston: Schoenhof.
Scholz, F. Die Diätetik des Geistes. Leipzig: E. H. Mayer; New York: Westermann.
Sergeant, Adeline. Jacobi's Wife. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Spencer, Mrs. Geo. E. Calamity Jane. Cassell & Co. 25 cents.
Stephen, L. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XI. Clater-Condell. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Stock, St. G. The Meno of Plato. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Swinburne, A. C. Select Poems. Worthington Co. $1.50.
Towne, E. O. Aphorisms of the Three Threes. 2d ed. Chicago: Chas. H. Kerr & Co. $1.
Ward, T. H. The Reign of Queen Victoria. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 2 vols.
Warth, J. Dorothy Thorn of Thornton. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
White Mountains: a Handbook for Travellers. 8th ed. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Wilkinson, H. Easy Selections from Ovid. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Wilson, E. L. Quarter Century in Photography. Published by the Author, 835 Broadway, N. Y.
Wilson, Gen. J. H. China: Travels and Investigations in the Middle Kingdom. D. Appleton & Co.
Wright's Australia, India, China, and Japan Commercial Directory and Gazetteer. Gaylord Watson.
Wundt, W. Zum Moral der literarischen Kritik. Leipzig: W. Engelmann.
Zola, E. Rénée. T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.

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